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PRIMARY AND SECONDARY PUBLIC EDUCATION IN MICHIGAN

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The Development

of

Primary and Secondary Public Education

in

Michigan.

A Historical Sketch

by

Daniel Putnam,

Professor in the Normal College, Ypsilanti.

LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

GEORGE WAHR

PUBLISHER AND BOOKSELLER

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PREFACE.

Excellent histories of the University and of higher education in Michigan have been published, but no connected history of the development of primary and secondary education in the State has appeared. Such history is found only in multifarious reports and other documents of a more or less permanent character. The lack of any history of this kind has been a matter of regret and inconvenience, and occasionally of reproach to the commonwealth. In a correspondence with the lamented Dr. B. A. Hinsdale, a short time previous to his death, he expressed his sense of the want of such a work, and urged some reasons why the present writer should undertake to supply it. Until that time I had formed no definite purpose of preparing this volume. Some circumstances, however, favored the undertaking.

In the performance of my official duties, it had been necessary for me to acquaint myself with the school laws and educational institutions of the State; and in the preparation of histories of the normal school, of the institute work, of the educational funds, and of the State Teachers' Association, I had collected a considerable amount of material for such a history, and had discovered where still more material could be found. I have arranged this material in such form as, on the whole, seemed best adapted to the end in view. The plan adopted has necessitated occasionally a little repetition, and sometimes the separation of closely related matters. But it is believed that these disadvantages are not serious, and are more than compensated by offsetting advantages.

It will be observed that I have quoted literally and freely from reports and other documents. This has been done of set purpose. I have preferred to allow men, as far as possible, to state their own position and express their own opinions in their own words. This enables the reader to form a judgment of his own relative to men and measures, instead of compelling him to accept or reject the ready-made judgment of the writer.

It has been my good fortune to have some personal knowledge of all the Michigan Superintendents of Public Instruction, with the single exception of Mr. Sawyer. Superintendent Pierce was a neighbor for several years. I was intimately associated with Superintendents Gregory and Hosford during fourteen eventful years in the educational history of the State. Through personal intercourse it is possible to gather impressions and information which have never been committed to writing, and to get a more correct understanding of men and measures than can be obtained from printed documents. It will be generally admitted that one should profit by such opportunities.

No one can be more sensible of the inadequacy of this presentation of the progressive development of the primary and secondary public school system of Michigan than the writer, but he hopes, nevertheless, that it may have something of interest and value to the teachers and to the people of the State generally. The preparation of this little volume practically closes a term of service in the educational work of my adopted State extending over a period of a half century. I commit it to the charitable judgment of those who may read it, and myself to the kindly remembrance of the many whom I have had the pleasure of knowing in the various relations which teachers and pupils sustain to one another.

Normal College, Ypsilanti, 1904.

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CHAPTER I.

EDUCATION IN THE TERRITORIAL PERIOD.

The flags of three nations have successively represented sovereignty and civilization in Michigan. Each flag has symbolized certain principles and characteristics of political, civil, religious, and educational administration. French population and French principles and modes of administration predominated for more than a century after the founding of Detroit by Cadillac in 1701. The transfer of the territory to English rule made no essential change in the management of local affairs, and the subsequent transfer to the United States produced no immediate revolution in previously established methods of local government.

Under the French régime centralization was the fundamental principle in all affairs. The military commandant was supreme in the State, and the priest or bishop in the church. Education was a function of the church. The initiative in everything was in the officials, not in the people. There were no semi-independent local organizations, like the New England towns to provide for the management and support of schools. This fact must be kept in mind in order to understand and judge fairly the educational measures of the early Territorial government. The educational methods of the older States could not success-

fully adopted until the immigration of American population should give predominance to American ideas and to American modes of local organization. At first few townships and no school districts existed.

There is evidence, however, that some attention was given to education even in the earliest period of the French settlement. Two years after the founding of Detroit, Cadillac, the commandant, in a communication to Count Pontchartrain, wrote: "Permit me to insist upon the great necessity there is for the establishment of a Seminary at this place for the instruction of children of the savages with those of the French, instructing them in piety and, at the same time, teaching them our language."*

It is doubtful if this recommendation produced any immediate results, as Silas Farmer states that no indication of schools or teachers can be found until 1755, a half century later. At the close of another half century in 1804, a Ladies' Academy and a School for young men were opened by "Father Richard." These, of course, were church schools.

In 1808 Father Richard presented to the officers of the Territorial government a full report of the character and condition of the Catholic Schools in Detroit and vicinity. Besides the English schools in Detroit, there were four primary schools for boys and two for young ladies. Some of these were taught by natives of the country. In one of the schools were several young Indians of the Pottowatamie tribe. In an Academy for young ladies more than thirty young girls were taught knitting, sewing, spinning and other occupations in addition to the ordinary common

*Farmer's History of Detroit, p. 720.

school studies. There were in two schools three dozen spinning wheels and a loom; and a spinning machine of about a hundred spindles had been ordered from New York. Father Richard had in view plans for an Academy or high school for boys and the beginnings of a public library. He seems to have been a practical advocate of industrial education and to have been a progressive educator in other directions.

Private schools of varying degrees of excellence are reported to have existed from 1775. Most of these were short-lived and of inferior character. It does not fall within our purpose to trace their history or to estimate their value in the community. They are mentioned, in connection with the parochial schools, to show that, while no public provision had yet been made for education, the better informed of the people were alive to its importance, and were becoming ready to co-operate with the authorities whenever some feasible plan should be presented. Conditions were such that the initiative could come only from the Territorial government.

The form of this government was peculiar. It was highly centralized, and had few features which would today be regarded as democratic. Legislative, executive, and judicial authority was entirely vested in a Governor and three Judges appointed by the President with the consent and approval of the Senate. A Secretary was added who became acting Governor in the absence of that officer. All local offices were created by the governor and all local officers were appointed by him. The people generally "had no feeling of responsibility in respect to public and governmental concerns, and submitted cheerfully and without ques-

tion to the authorities placed over them."

The character and habits of the people, and the condition of local affairs in the Territory, naturally determined the form of school legislation and the provisions for the organization, management, and support of schools. The peculiar features of the enactments of 1817 and 1821 become partially intelligible at least in view of these facts.

The first law relating to schools was promulgated in February, 1809: this act seems not to have been printed and no copy of it is known to be in existence. In the introductory explanation to the "Territorial Laws" it is spoken of as "missing." Justice Cooley in his History of Michigan, gives a synopsis of the law, but I am unable to ascertain the source from which he received his information. He states that "the act provided for the laying off into school districts of all the settled portions of the territory, and for an enumeration of the children between the ages of four and eighteen in each of the districts. From these districts annual reports were required of the moneys expended in the support of schools and the construction of school buildings, and the territorial government was to levy an annual tax of not less than two nor more than four dollars for each child reported within the ages mentioned. The sum collected was to be apportioned among the districts; not, however, in proportion to the number of children in them respectively, but in proportion to the sums expended in the year preceding for school purposes."

It will be observed that funds for school purposes were to be raised by a general tax upon the property of the territory and not by local taxation. There is, however, an implication that money might be raised in the districts, but

probably by voluntary contributions. No mention is made of local officers or of the qualifications or employment of of teachers. Farmer's History of Detroit states that the overseers of the poor were to form school districts out of their own districts and act as trustees of the same, and that Judges of District Courts were to appropriate the moneys. The people of the various localities had no voice in the organization and management of schools. There is no evidence that any school districts were formed or any schools organized under that act. In all probability the law was a dead letter from the first. No further legislation appears to have taken place until 1817. Meanwhile private and church schools furnished whatever education the people had.

Rev. John Montieth, a Presbyterian clergyman, a graduate of Princeton college, came to Detroit in 1816 and gathered a congregation of Protestants to whom he ministered for several years. In connection with the catholic priest "Father Richard," he succeeded in stirring up the Territorial government to make some provision for public education. Governor Lewis Cass, a native of New Hampshire, seven years a student in the Academy at Exeter, then under the Principalship of the famous Benjamin Abbott, was more than ready to second any feasible efforts for the instruction of the children of the common people. In August, 1817, an act was passed by the Territorial government incorporating an institution called the "Catholipistemead, or University of Michigania." The pedantic and absurd nomenclature of this act is accounted for by the fact that it was drawn up by the eccentric Judge Woodward and enacted during the temporary absence of the Governor. We are here concerned with this law only so far as it affected sec-

ondary and primary education. It provides not merely for the establishment of a single institution of high rank, but also a unique and complete school system for the whole Territory. The President and Professors of the institution were to be appointed by the Governor and their salaries were to be paid from the treasury of the territory. Thirteen professorships were provided for, but the same individual might be appointed to several chairs. Mr. Montieth was appointed President and was given seven professorships: Father Richard was made Vice President and held the other six professorships. Consequently the faculty consisted of two men, a Presbyterian and a Roman Catholic. There is no report of discord or conflict in the faculty. In addition to managing the affairs of the University proper, the faculty, that is, these two individuals, were empowered "to establish colleges, academies, schools, libraries, museums, botanic gardens, laboratories, and other useful literary and scientific institutions consonant to the laws of the United States of America and of Michigan," and to appoint teachers and other school officers in all the counties, towns, and cities of the territory. All teachers of every grade were to be paid from the public treasury. Fifteen per cent of the public taxes was set apart for the support of schools. It will be observed that the whole educational system of the Territory and all schools from the University to the lowest primary, were made subject to the immediate and absolute control of a small central board, and this board was appointed by the Governor, and the Governor was appointed by the President. The people had "no part or lot in the matter" except to pay the taxes. And yet this system was not out of harmony with the then existing condition of affairs; the con-

dition soon changed and naturally the system changed with it.

It has been the fashion of most writers to see in this act of 1817 only fit material for ridicule and sarcasm. That its verbiage affords good excuse for such treatment cannot be denied; but it contained the essential principles which are embodied in the present school system of this State, and which have been incorporated into the systems of many of the newer States. It made education the business of the State; it provided for the organization, management, and support of schools of all grades by the State; it aimed to secure an organic connection between the various parts of the school system. Justice Cooley says "The plan was crude and pedantic, but its author had grasped certain principles which were of the very highest importance, and which from this time became incorporated in the polity of the Territory, and subsequently of the State also. In every State, as he believed, the education of the people is important to the State itself, and should be assumed as a State duty. It should not be restricted to elementary education merely, but the State ought to place within the reach of its youth such higher education also as is commonly given by the colleges of the land. And this education should be non-sectarian."*

The affairs of the University were conducted with a stiff formality appropriate to a great institution, but Mr. Montieth and Father Richard appear to have understood that the immediate need of the Territory was some provision for elementary education. They accordingly at once opened some primary schools in Detroit, Monroe, and Mackinaw,

*Cooley's Michigan, p. 310.

in which the usual branches were taught, and provided for secondary instruction by establishing an academy in Detroit in which English, French, Latin and "Greek antiquities" were to be taught. It was directed that the "Sacred Scriptures shall constitute part of the reading from the beginning to the end of the course." A university building, twenty-four by fifty feet, two stories in height, was soon erected with funds derived mostly from private subscriptions. A school conducted on the Lancasterian plan, was opened in the building in 1818, which increased during the year from eleven scholars to one hundred and eighty-three. A tuition fee was charged varying from one dollar to three dollars and a half per quarter, but in many cases parents failed to pay the required fee.

In 1821 the act of 1817 was superseded by a statute, written in the ordinary English language, providing for the establishment of a University to be under the control of a board of twenty-one trustees of which the Governor was a member *ex-officio*. The idea of a central institution of high rank and of subordinate schools of various grades under the same management was retained; but the authority to establish and manage such schools was vested in the board of trustees and not in the faculty of the University. The trustees were empowered to organize such colleges, academies, and schools as they deemed proper and to apply funds for the "promotion of literature and the advancement of useful knowledge within the territory." All public education in the territory remained under the control of a single central board. The work and methods of the new corporation were essentially the same as those of the previous body; but an important change was made in respect

to funds for the support of educational work. The provision for a general tax upon the property of the Territory was repealed and the trustees were left to depend upon the income from lands specially devoted to educational purposes and upon voluntary contributions from private individuals.

No change was made in the educational policy or educational machinery of the territory until 1827. The people had little or nothing to do with public school affairs, or indeed with any of the affairs of the government, until 1823. The ordinance of 1787, which was in effect the constitution of the territory of Michigan, provided that when there were five thousand free male inhabitants in the territory they might elect a legislative assembly. In 1818 the population had increased to that number, and the question was subsubmitted to a popular vote, whether provision should be made for the election of such an assembly, and it was voted down by a large majority.

The French element and French ideas were still predominant. The time for public schools under local management had not yet come. "It is difficult for us who have been educated under a system of self-government to comprehend the feelings of those who have been brought up under a paternal government. The brief period of representation in the Assembly of the Northwest Territory had not habituated the French settlers to our notions. And the absence of any local system in township and county administration left them entirely ignorant of its advantages. Those who reached middle age before the people in the territory became entitled to vote for their own officers, were not always pleased with the change, and some of them who survived to a very recent period, never ceased to sigh

for the good old days, when the commanding officer was the whole government."*

In 1823 Congress modified the character of the Territorial government, transferring the legislative authority to the Governor and a Council of nine members partially elected by the people, and in 1827 increased the number to thirteen fully elected by the people. Provision was also made for the division of the Territory into townships and for the election of township officers. The way was now open for the establishment of public primary schools under the control of local authorities.

Much credit is due to Governer Cass for his earnest and continued efforts to induce the Council to make immediate and adequate provision for the organization and support of schools. In his message to the first Council, in 1824, after referring to the funds from lands donated by Congress for educational purposes, he said: "whatever beyond these the state of the country may require must be furnished by the application of individual contribution, or by county or township assessments authorized by law. The importance of this subject to our present and future prosperity must be too well appreciated to require any observations from me. A practical and well digested system, which should extend to all the advantages of education, would be of inestimable value to this young and growing community. A more acceptable service could not be rendered to our fellow citizens. And no more equable tax can be levied in any country than one whose application is directed to preparing its citizens for appreciating and preserving the blessings of self-government." The Gover-

*Campbell's History of Michigan, pp. 391-2.

nor's appeal, however, produced no action from the Council at that session. Public sentiment did not yet make any imperative demand.

At the next session he returned to the subject of education, and even more earnestly urged the Council to take some action. After referring to the additional township of land donated by Congress, and to the authority given to locate the land in small tracts, the Governor said: "When the country becomes improved, a revenue will probably be derived from these reservations, amounting to almost one thirtieth part of the Territory, adequate to the great purpose of public instruction. But until then we shall in vain look for any vigorous or systematic effort upon this subject, without the powerful intervention of the legislature. * * * The wealthy will provide for their own children, but those who are less fortunate in life must look to their country for assistance. * * * It appears to me that a plan must be devised, which will not press too heavily upon the means of the country, and which will insure a complete portion of education to all the youth of the Territory; and I recommend the subject to your serious consideration." The importunity and zeal of the Governor, reënforced doubtless by a growing public sentiment among ing the new settlers in the Territory, at length induced the Council to act. A law was enacted in 1827 providing for the establishment of common schools throughout the Territory, and making such schools independent of the control of the trustees of the University. The period of centralization had passed; local democracy was to have its opportunity. The people had made some progress in the management of local township affairs through officers of their own choice.

The statute of 1827 was essentially a reproduction of an early school law of the Massachusetts colony, with some features borrowed from New York, and was not well adapted to the condition of the Territory or to the habits of the people; but it afforded an opportunity for a beginning of public elementary education under the immediate control of the people.

This act required every township containing fifty families to support a school, in which "reading ,writing, orthography, arithmetic, and decent behavior should be taught." The teaching might be either in the French or English language. The term of school was to be equivalent to six months; and the wording of the statute implied that this term might be divided into two or more periods, and that the school might be kept, during the different periods in different parts of the township. Townships containing a hundred families were required to support a school twelve months, with the same provision as to periods and locations. Townships with a hundred and fifty families were required to support a primary school for six months, and a school of a little more advanced character for twelve months. This last school was required to have a teacher who could instruct in the English language. Townships containing two hundred families were required, in addition to schools previously mentioned to employ "a grammar school-master of good morals, well instructed in the Latin, French, and English languages," for a period equivalent to twelve months in the year.

The grammar school of that day was equal to an academy or high school of moderate grade, and offered the advantages of secondary education including preparation

for the University. This statute combined with the act of 1821, gave the Territory, on paper, a tolerably complete system of public instruction.

It will be observed that this law dealt with townships and not with school districts. The system was a township system, with the proviso that the voters of the township might order a division of the township into districts, the local affairs of such districts being managed by a board of three trustees elected annually. The township school officers consisted of a board of inspectors, not exceeding five in number, who examined teachers and exercised a general supervision over the schools. Public sentiment in relation to education in the Territory was indicated by the last section of the law, which read: "Nothing in this act contained shall be so construed as to make it obligatory on any townships of this Territory to employ teachers as provided by this act; *Provided* that the electors at the annual meeting, by a vote of two-thirds of all the electors present at such meeting, shall determine that they will not comply with the provisions of this act for that year." It is apparent that this section was added from deference (1) to those who preferred church and private schools, and (2) to those who were opposed to general taxation for the support of schools. The legislation of the next year shows that serious obstacles were encountered in the efforts to enforce the somewhat complicated provisions of this law; and that many townships had neglected to comply with its requirements without the safeguard of the two-thirds vote. On the whole the practical workings of the system provided for by the act of 1827 were unsatisfactory.

To the Council in 1828 Governor Cass said: "I am ap-

prehensive that our present laws upon the subject of education are entirely too complicated for practical operation. Many of the provisions are wise and just, but many others do not seem adapted to the circumstances of a new country. The efficiency of a system entering so much into the relations of private life, must depend essentially upon its simplicity, and upon its adaptation to the situation and opinions of the people."

He strongly urged a reëxamination of the subject and the adoption of a better plan. He insisted that no wiser or juster tax could be levied than one devoted to education. The children of the poor, he declared, should be the pupils of the State, and should be educated at the expense of the state.

In accordance with the recommendations of the Governer, the Council passed a new act "to provide for and regulate common schools." This law definitely established the "district system" of school organization; made the district officers a clerk, treasurer, collector, and three directors who were the executive officers; provided for a township board of "Commissioners of Common Schools," and also a board of "five discreet persons" to act as "Inspectors of Common schools." The first board arranged the school districts, and distributed the proceeds derived from the rent of the school section. The basis of distribution being the number of scholars in each district. The second board examined teachers and supervised the schools.

The law also provided for the appointment by the Governor of a "Superintendent of common schools for the Territory." This officer was to take charge of the school section in townships where the people neglected to make

proper provision for the care and protection of this land, and to report annually to the Council the condition of school lands, the amount of money received from the rent of these, the number of scholars in the public schools; and whatever else he deemed of importance.

This school code was slightly amended by successive Councils, was pretty thoroughly revised in 1833, but the general features of the system remained unchanged till the close of the Territorial period. It will be of interest to examine a little more in detail some features of the Territorial school system.

PROVISION FOR THE SUPPORT OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The act of 1827 provided that the township should raise by a general tax, levied and collected in the same way as other taxes, money for the payment of the wages of teachers. The proceeds of this tax and the money derived from the rent of the school section (this section could not at that time be sold) were distributed to the districts in proportion to the number of children in each district between the ages of five and fifteen years. Funds for building school houses, keeping them in repair, providing fuel and other necessaries, were raised by a tax voted, levied, and collected by the district itself. At first the tax was levied only on the property of residents, but by an amendment two years later, the property of non-residents was included.

In subsequent revisions, while no change was made as to funds for building school houses, a radical and unfortunate change was made in the provisions for obtaining

money for the payment of teachers. The township tax was abandoned. The proceeds from the school lands were divided among the districts on the basis of the number of children actually taught in the schools. The remainder of the funds needed for teachers' wages were raised by the "rate bill" system. Those who sent children to school paid in proportion to the number of children sent and the days of attendance. The children of those who were able to pay the rate bill and refused or neglected to do so were excluded from the school. The tuition of children whose parents were unable to meet the expense was provided for by a general tax upon the property of the district. It will be observed that public sentiment in the Territory, as indicated by the school laws, had undergone a progressive change. At first the central Territorial government defrayed the expenses of education; a little later the township provided for the schooling of its children; finally it was determined that parents should pay for the instruction of their own children, if able to do so. The State, or the public, provided school houses and other necessary facilities but nothing more, except in case of the indigent. Extreme centralization had given way to extreme individualism.

PROVISIONS AS TO TEACHERS.

Under the statute of 1817 the central Territorial board employed teachers and determined their qualifications without any restrictions or legal limitations. Under the later laws the township board of school Inspectors examined the teachers of the common schools, and gave certificates valid for one year. The nature of the examination can only

be inferred from existing conditions and from the branches of study which they were expected to teach. The Inspectors were required to certify to their competency and moral character. By one of the early statutes persons presuming to teach a public school without the Inspector"s certificate were liable to a fine of two hundred dollars, one-half of which went to the informer, the other half to the fund for the poor. This provision was eliminated in the next revision of the school laws, and school officers were forbidden to employ teachers not having proper certificates. Teachers were to report under oath, if those concerned required this, a full statement of the attendance of scholars and names of parents.

SUMMARY OF CONDITIONS.

Educational conditions at the close of the Territorial period were essentially the following:

1. Provision for higher education by a University, existing in the statute and in anticipation, with a prospective endowment from seventy-two sections of land donated by Congress and three sections given by certain Indian tribes.

2. Provision for secondary education by means of schools to be established and supported by the trustees of the University.

3. Provision for elementary schools, to be held at least three months in the year, controlled and supported by the various school districts, with the aid derived from the rents of the school section.

4. Provision for a Territorial "Superintendent of Common Schools," appointed by the Governor with the consent

of the legislative Council, whose duties were similar to those of the first State Superintendent.

The main features of the Territorial system were incorporated, with some changes and improvements, into the State system by Superintendent Pierce.

The actual state of elementary education and of educational affairs, as late as 1836, is well pictured by Justice Thomas M. Cooley. "The schools at the time State government was established were still very primitive affairs. There were as yet no professional teachers. Some farmer or mechanic, or perhaps a grown-up son or daughter, who had had the advantages of the common schools of New York or New England, offered his or her services as teacher during the dull season of regular employment, and consented to take as wages such sum as the district could afford to pay. A summer school taught by a woman, who would be paid six or eight dollars a month, and a winter school taught by a man, whose compensation was twice as great, was what was generally provided for. But in addition to wages the teacher received his board, "boarding round" among the patrons of the school, and remaining with each a number of days determined by the number of pupils sent to school. If we shall incline to visit one of these schools in the newer portion of the State we shall be likely to find it housed in a log structure, covered with bark, imperfectly plastered between the logs to exclude the cold, and still more imperfectly warmed by an open fire-place or by a box stove, for which fuel is provided, as the board for the teacher is, by proportional contributions. The seats for the pupils may be of slabs set on legs; the desks may be other slabs laid upon supports fixed to the logs which constitute the

sides of the room. The school books are miscellaneous, and consist largely of those brought by the parents when emigrating to the territory. Those who write must rule their paper with pencils of their own manufacture, and the master will make pens for them from the goose-quill. For the most part the ink is of home manufacture. There are no globes: no means of illustration; not even a blackboard. * * * Such in many cases was the Michigan school. Better school buildings were now springing up, but as a rule nothing could seem more dreary or dispiriting than the average school district. Nevertheless, many an intellect received a quickening in those schools which fitted it for a life of useful and honorable activity. The new settlers made such provision for the education of their children as was possible under the circumstances in which they were placed, and the fruits of their labors and sacrifices in this direction were in many cases surprising."*

*Cooley's Michigan, pp. 315-317.

CHAPTER II.

CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS AS TO EDUCATION.

Michigan owes a large debt of gratitude to ISAAC E. CRARY and JOHN D. PIERCE. More than any other two men, they were instrumental in laying the foundations of her educational system, and in giving direction to its early development. By native endowments and by academic culture they were admirably fitted for the work. Mr. Crary was a native of Connecticut, born in 1804. He graduated from Washington (now Trinity) college at Hartford in its first class, 1829, with the highest honors. He came to Michigan in 1832, was delegate to Congress from the Territory, and the first Representative of the State in Congress. For several years he was a resident of Marshall in Calhoun county.

John D. Pierce was a native of New Hampshire, born in 1797. He graduated from Brown University, Rhode Island, with an excellent reputation as a scholar, in 1822. While in college he taught school three months in each year to secure means to defray his expenses. After leaving college he studied one year in the Princeton Theological Seminary, then became pastor of a church in Oneida county, New York, where he remained four years. He was Principal of an academy in Goshen, Connecticut, during the following year. In the spring of 1831 he was commissioned by the Congregational Home Mission Society to act as a missionary either in Illinois or Michigan as he might choose. In July of that year he located in Marshall, Michigan, and continued

his missionary labors until he was appointed Superintendent of Public Instruction in 1836. A year after he settled in Marshall, Mr. Crary became a resident of the same place. Circumstances brought them into close relationship, and into intimate acquaintance and friendship. Like most of the men in the Territory at that period they were both young and filled with enthusiasm and hopefulness of that time of life, and with the spirit of enterprise which characterized the new-comers in the Territory. It was the day of great expectations and of far-reaching plans.

Late in his life, writing of that period, Mr. Pierce said, in substance, "when I came to Michigan, in 1831, the census just taken, including what is now the State of Wisconsin, showed a population of 32,000; of this number 30,000 were in Michigan proper. The census was again taken in 1834, and the population had increased to 87,000. Soon after, the Legislative Council of the Territory provided for a convention to frame a State constitution, the time of meeting being May, 1835, and the place Detroit. Naturally the coming convention and the new constitution were subjects of much earnest discussion. Mr. Pierce writes: "It was at this period in our history that the Michigan School System had its inception and origin. Gen. Isaac E. Crary, a graduate of an Eastern college, and a warm friend of education, was for a year or two an inmate of my house. The condition and prospects of our new State were often the subject of discussion, and especially of schools of various grades, from the highest to the lowest. About this time, COUSIN'S report on the Prussian system, made to the French minister of Public Instruction, came into my hands, and was read with much interest. Sitting one pleasant after-

noon upon a log, on the hill north of where the Court House at Marshall now stands, Gen. Crary and myself discussed, for a long time, the fundamental principles which were deemed important for the convention to adopt, in laying the foundation of a new State. The subject of education was a theme of especial interest. It was agreed, if possible, that it should make a distinct branch of the government, and that the constitution ought to provide for an officer who should have this whole matter in charge, and thus keep its importance perpetually before the public mind."

CONVENTION AND CONSTITUTION OF 1835.

Mr. Crary was elected as a delegate to the convention and was appointed chairman of the committee on education. The ideas evolved in the discussion on the log in Marshall, took form in the article on education in the constitution. Unfortunately the prceedings and debates of this convention have not been preserved in such form as to be accessible. Superintendent Shearman, in his report for 1852, writes: "There was no debate in relation to the importance of making suitable provision for Public Instruction. A committee was appointed to draft an article, of which Isaac E. Crary of Calhoun, was chairman. It was reported on the second day of June, 1835, and was accepted substantially as it came from the hands of the committee. As reported to the convention, the article provided for a *Secretary* of Public Instruction. When the article came up in the convention, Judge Woodbridge remarked that he had read it, and although it was new and not to be found in any other constitution, yet he was inclined to give it his support, if

the chairman of the committee would consent to make one alteration, viz: to strike out the word *Secretary,* and insert *Superintendent.* The chairman remarked that the report was beyond his control, but if there was no objection on the part of any member of the convention, in order to secure the support of the member from Wayne, he would readily consent to the change. The change was accordingly made. The article, as reported, provided for a library in each school district. This was amended in convention, by the casting vote of the President, by striking out the words school district, and inserting township. The article being referred to the committee on phraseology and revision, the words *at least,* were inserted, where they appeared in the old constitution; and the article thus passed, secured by this slight addition and change, the establishment, by subsequent legislation, of libraries in every school district." The following is the article as adopted.

EDUCATION.

1. "The Governor shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Legislature, in joint vote, shall appoint a Superintendent of Public Instruction, who shall hold his office for two years, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law.

2. The Legislature shall encourage, by all suitable means, the promotion of intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement. The proceeds of all lands that have been or hereafter may be granted by the United States to this State for the support of schools, which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, shall be and remain a perpetual fund;

the interest of which, together with the rents of all such unsold lands, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of schools throughout the State.

3. The Legislature shall provide for a system of common schools by which a school shall be kept up and supported in each school district at least three months in every year; and any school district neglecting to keep up and support a school may be deprived of its equal proportion of the interest of the public fund.

4. As soon as the circumstances of the State will permit, the Legislature shall provide for the establishment of libraries; one at least in each township; and the money which shall be paid by persons as an equivalent for exemption from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines assessed in the several counties for any breach of the penal laws, shall be exclusively applied for the support of said libraries.

5. The Legislature shall take measures for the protection, improvement or other disposition of such lands as have been or may hereafter be reserved or granted by the United States to this State for the support of a University; and the funds accruing from the rents or sale of such lands, or from any other source for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a permanent fund for the support of said University, with such branches as the public convenience may hereafter demand, for the promotion of literature, the arts and sciences, and as may be authorized by the terms of such grant; and it shall be the duty of the Legislature, as soon as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds of said University."

Among the amendments to the constitution of 1835, was

one submitted to the people and ratified at the election in November, 1849, providing for the election of certain State officers, and among these the Superintendent of Public Instruction, by the people. This amendment was incorporated into the constitution of 1850. (Report of the proceedings of the Convention of 1850, page XXI.)

CONVENTION AND CONSTITUTION OF 1850.

ISAAC E. CRARY and JOHN D. PIERCE were both members from Calhoun county, of the Convention for the revision of the constitution in 1850, and Mr. Pierce was a member of the committee on education. This subject received a large share of attention, and the published debates give evidence of considerable diversity of opinion upon several features of the educational system. The report of the committee did not, as in the convention of 1835, receive approval and adoption without discussion. Conditions had changed during the intervening period and it was not easy to secure unanimity of action upon some matters of vital importance to the value and efficiency of the school system. No extended report of the discussion can be given, but the topics can be indicated upon which the greatest diversity of opinion appeared.

The first section of the committee's report, providing for a Superintendent of Public Instruction, to be elected by the people, was adopted with but little debate. A feeble attempt was made to attach the superintendency as an appendage to one of the other State offices, as had been done in New York, but the proposition received very little support. Both Mr. Crary and Mr. Pierce spoke strongly and at some

length, in favor of continuing the office in its previous form, and the general sentiment of the convention was in the same direction.

The questions which provoked the most extended debate and revealed the widest diversity of views were: Shall the primary schools be made absolutely free for a certain number of months in the year, and, if so, shall they be made free immediately or after some specified date? How shall the necessary funds be raised for the support of these schools? Shall it be by a general State tax, by township tax, or by a district tax? Upon what basis shall the proceeds of the school fund and the money derived from State taxation be distributed to the various districts? Shall the distribution be on the basis of the number of children of school age in the District? or shall it be upon the basis of the whole number of inhabitants in the district? or shall each township and district receive back a sum just equal to the amount of taxes which it has paid? or can some other basis be found? After protracted discussion and many fruitless efforts to come to some agreement, the question of the basis of distribution was left to be determined by the Legislature.

The question of free schools was very earnestly debated, and the debates revealed a wide diversity of views. Three unequal parties upon this question existed in the Convention. A few members were opposed to free schools both from principle and policy. The arguments employed by these gentlement were, in substance, the injustice of taxing one man to pay for the education of another man's children, and the claim that people would take little interest in the education of their children if such education cost them nothing; that people generally valued a thing in proportion

to its cost. Arguments of this sort were frequently heard fifty years ago even from teachers and other good friends of education.

Another small party urged strongly that the constitution should provide for free schools *immediately;* that this questions should not be left to the decision of some future legislative body. It was urged, in substance, that the State, by some mode of taxation, was bound to provide for the education of all the children within its boundaries; that taxation for this purpose was not taxing one man to educate another man's children, but was taxing the property of the State to provide for its own protection and safety through the intelligence and virtue of its present and future citizens. Between these two extremes was a larger party, probably a majority of the convention, who argued that the constitution should simply affirm the principle of free schools, the desirability of such schools when circumstances would permit, and leave the Legislature to determine when circumstances would justify action making them free. The discussions upon this topic were long and earnest, and resulted in the compromise which appears in the educational article, requiring the Legislature within five years "to provide for and establish a system of primary schools, whereby a school shall be kept without charge for tuition at least three months in each year, in every school district in the State." The limit of three months was unsatisfactory to the friends of free schools, but they accepted it on the principle that "half a loaf is better than no bread at all." They trusted to an improved public sentiment to demand, in the near future, a longer term than three months. How successive legislatures for several years, disregarded the mandate of the constitution is a matter of history not flattering to State

pride or even a comfortable degree of self-respect.

The question of allowing other languages than the English to be taught in the elementary public schools occasioned considerable debate. The original report of the committee on education read: "The English language, and no other, shall be taught in such schools." The discussion brought out the fact that in some of the districts the English language was not used, all instruction and exercises being in French or German. To remedy the undesirable condition it was proposed to make the clause read: "The English language shall be taught in all the primary schools of this State." This form was unsatisfactory, since it only made it obligatory that the English language should be taught. The general instruction in the school might still be carried on in another language, and the school not be really an English school. The form found in the constitution was finally adopted after a free exchange of opinions. It is clear enough from the whole tenor of proceedings that it was not the intention of the constitution to exclude the teaching of other languages, but to insist upon the use of English in the processes of instruction. It was distinctly stated in the debates that the amendment does not declare that no other language shall be taught; but it makes the English language the medium of instruction. It was said: "Large numbers of emigrants are locating in the State; it is the true policy of the State to have them acquire the use of the English language in the shortest period practicable. There is an anxiety on the part of these emigrants to preserve their own language to the exclusion of the English. This is an evil that should be remedied."

One of the most extended discussions occurred upon the

question of the method of taxation to raise money for the support of the primary schools. Three methods were urged; (1) a general State tax, (2) a tax levied by the township, (3) taxes levied by the school district, which might involve the rate bill. The advantages and disadvantages of each method were very fully presented, and the debates, as a whole, are decidedly interesting. No agreement could be reached and the question was left to be considered and answered by future Legislatures. It is still an unsolved problem. The subject of an Agricultural college came in for extended consideration, as also the question of the disposition of specific taxes.

A vigorous and protracted debate took place upon the question, whether the Regents of the University should be appointed by the Governor with the consent of the Senate or the Legislature, or should be elected by the people. At one stage of the Convention the proposition that they should be nominated by the Governor and appointed by the Legislature in joint sessions, was adopted. The proposition was made and advocated with apparent seriousness to have the Professors in the University also elected by the people.

The references to the debates in the Convention have been made to indicate the general sentiment of the leading men of the State upon educational affairs at that period. The differences between the article on education in the constitution of 1835 and that of 1850 may be studied with profit by the student of educational history. The changes brought about by the development of educational institutions, and of the State generally, during fifteen years will be readily observed. The democratic tendencies of the age are seen

in making all State officers elected by the sovereign people, and in the short terms of office given to these officials. The distrust of the legislative body is indicated by the large amount of legislation introduced into the constitution itself. Two amendments have since been adopted affecting the article on education, one providing for the election of a board of eight regents without reference to judicial districts, with a term of eight years; and the other providing that fines collected for breaches of the penal statutes may be used for other than library purposes. The article is given as amended.

CONSTITUTION OF 1850.

ARTICLE XIII.

EDUCATION.

"SECTION 1. The superintendent of public instruction shall have the general supervision of public instruction, and his duties shall be prescribed by law.

SEC. 2. The proceeds from the sales of all lands that have been or hereafter may be granted by the United States to the State for educational purposes, and the proceeds of all lands or other property given by individuals, or appropriated by the State for like purposes, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest and income of which, together with the rents of all such lands as may remain unsold, shall be inviolably appropriated and annually applied to the specific objects of the original gift, grant, or appropriation.

SEC. 3. All lands, the titles to which shall fail from a

defect of heirs, shall escheat to the State; and the interest on the clear proceeds from the sales thereof shall be appropriated exclusively to the support of primary schools.

SEC. 4. The legislature shall, within five years from the adoption of this constitution, provide for and establish a system of primary schools, whereby a school shall be kept without charge for tuition, at least three months in each year, in every school district in the State; and all instruction in said schools shall be conducted in the English language.

SEC. 5. A school shall be maintained in each school district at least three months in each year. Any school district neglecting to maintain such school shall be deprived for the ensuing year of its proportion of the income of the primary school fund, and of all funds arising from taxes for the support of schools.

SEC. 6. There shall be elected in the year eighteen hundred and sixty-three, at the time of the election of a justice of the supreme court, eight regents of the university, two of whom shall hold their office for two years, two for four years, two for six years, and two for eight years. They shall enter upon the duties of their office on the first of January next succeeding their election. At every regular election of a justice of the supreme court thereafter, there shall be elected two regents, whose term of office shall be eight years. When a vacancy shall occur in the office of regent, it shall be filled by appointment of the governor. The regents thus elected shall constitute the board of regents of the University of Michigan.*

*Amendment agreed to by the legislature of 1861, and approved by the people in 1862.

SEC. 7. The regents of the university, and their successors in office, shall continue to constitute the body corporate known by the name and title of "The regents of the university of Michigan."

SEC. 8. The regents of the university shall, at their first annual meeting, or as soon thereafter as may be, elect a president of the university, who shall be *ex officio* a member of their board, with the privilege of speaking, but not of voting. He shall preside at the meetings of the regents, and be the principal executive officer of the university. The board of regents shall have the general supervision of the university, and the direction and control of all expenditures from the university interest fund.

SEC. 9. There shall be elected at the general election in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two, three members of a State board of education; one for two years, one for four years, and one for six years; and at each succeeding biennial election there shall be elected one member of such board, who shall hold his office for six years. The superintendent of public instruction shall be *ex officio* a member and secretary of such board. The board shall have the general supervision of the State normal school, and their duties shall be prescribed by law.

SEC. 10. Institutions for the benefit of those inhabitants who are deaf, dumb, blind, or insane, shall always be fostered and supported.

SEC. 11. The legislature shall encourage the promotion of intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement; and shall, as soon as practicable, provide for the establishment of an agricultural school. The legislature may appropriate the twenty-two sections of salt spring lands now unappro-

priated, or the money arising from the sale of the same, where such lands have been already sold, and any land which may hereafter be granted or appropriated for such purpose, for the support and maintenance of such school, and may make the same a branch of the university, for instruction in agriculture and the natural sciences connected therewith, and place the same under the supervision of the regents of the university.

SEC. 12. The legislature shall also provide for the establishment of at least one library in each township and city; and all fines assessed and collected in the several counties and townships for any breach of he penal laws, shall be exclusively applied to the support of such libraries, unless otherwise ordered by the township board of any township, or the board of education of any city: *Provided,* That in no case shall such fines be used for other than library or school purposes."*

ARTICLE XIV.

FINANCE AND TAXATION.

SECTION 1. "All specific State taxes, except those received from the mining companies of the upper peninsula, shall be applied in paying the interest upon the primary school, university, and other educational funds, and the interest and principal of the State debt, in the order herein recited, until the extinguishment of the State debt, other than the amounts due to educational funds, when such specific taxes shall be added to and constitute a part of the

*Amendment agreed to by the legislature of 1879, and approved by the people in 1881.

primary school interest fund. The Legislature shall provide for an annual tax, sufficient with other resources, to pay the estimated expenses of the State government, the interest of the State debt, and such deficiency as may occur in the resources."

CHAPTER III.

THE STATE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

PRELIMINARY DISCUSSION.

John D. Pierce, familiarly known in Michigan as "Father Pierce," was appointed Superintendent of Public Instruction on July 26, 1836, having been nominated by Governor Mason and unanimously confirmed by the Legislature. He was instructed to report, at the next session of the Legislature to be held in January of 1837, "a system of common schools and a plan for a university and its branches." The report was prepared with great care, and presented in accordance with the instructions. Naturally and properly, before giving the details of the system and the plan, he discussed, with considerable fulness, some of the fundamental principles upon which a system of public education in a new, free State should be based, and the ends which it should seek to accomplish. The first and second reports of Superintendent Pierce may, without impropriety, be regarded as the educational constitution of the Commonwealth; and, in justice to him and his work, a history of public education in the State should begin with at least a resumé of his views and purposes and of the considerations by which he supported them. Some of his recommendations have been adversely criticised, in certain quarters, through misapprehension and from ignorance of the actual condition of affairs at that time.

In the preparation of his first reports, and in several of his recommendations, Mr. Pierce was obviously influenced by the educational conditions existing at the close of the Territorial period, and also by an intelligent and earnest study of the Prussian system of education as described in the able report of M. Cousin which had then been recently published. He moreover took pains to obtain the opinions and assistance of a number of the most eminent educators of the east. As a basis for the recommendations which he proposed to make, he began by calling attention to the vital importance of knowledge and virtue as the "broad and permanent foundations" of a free state.

IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION.

"In an educated and virtuous community there is safety; the rights of individuals are regarded and property is respected and secure. It may safely be assumed as a fundamental principle in our form of government, that knowledge is an element so essential to its existence and vigorous action that we can have no rational hope of its perpetuation unless it is generally diffused." He emphasized especially the value and importance of elementary education "for the great mass of the people." "Universities may be highly important and academies of great utility, but primary schools are the main dependence." Such schools, he affirmed, should be regarded as the foundation of our whole system of public instruction and the chief support of all our free institutions. "National liberty, sound morals, and education must stand or fall together. Common schools are democratic in their nature and influence; they tend to unify society; in them the rich and the poor come together on terms of perfect

equality. Let free schools be established and maintained in perpetuity, and there can be no such thing as a permanent aristocracy in our land; for the monopoly of wealth is powerless, where mind is allowed freely to come in contact with mind. We need wisdom, and prudence, and foresight in our councils; fixedness of purpose, integrity and uprightness of heart in our rulers; unwavering attachment to the rights of man among all our people; but these high attributes of a noble patriotism, these essential elements of civilization and improvement, will disappear when schools shall cease to exert an all-pervading influence through the length and breadth of our land."

FREE SCHOOLS AND REQUIRED ATTENDANCE.

Having thus stated the absolute necessity of education and intelligence and morality among the people as a whole, he goes on to inquire how schools, as a means of securing these ends, can be sustained. His conclusion is that they "ought emphatically to be the property and care of the state. To neglect them, would be to neglect the vital energies of the body politic. Hence the government ought so far to assume the direction, as to see to it that the benefit of the school system is extended to all parts of the community." It being the duty of the government to provide schools, he urges that it is both the right and duty of the State "to require of all persons, having the care of children, their education. And effectually to secure the accomplishment of this object, they should be required to send them to school the constitutional proportion of each year, between the ages of five and seventeen."

He urged that every district be required to maintain a primary school at its own expense for a certain number of months in the year; this school should be a free school, open to all "without money and without price." Being free and open to all, all should be required to accept and appropriate its advantages. It should not be permitted that any child should grow up in ignorance. We have here the doctrine of free schools with the correlative doctrine of compulsory attendance. In advocating this doctrine Superintendent Pierce was in advance of the public sentiment of his time. He insisted, nevertheless, that it was a logical conclusion from the premises which had been laid down. He said: "In all this there is nothing inconsistent with rational liberty. It is merely providing for the safety of the State, for its health, happiness, and vigorous growth. This duty stands on precisely the same ground as the law which obliges all the citizens to be enrolled and occasionally do military duty. It is a wise precautionary measure for the public security. * * * Most certainly nothing can be more desirable, and nothing more reasonable. The object to be attained is the welfare of the individual instructed and the security of the State. To secure this object, the instruction must be given; and hence the state has a right to require the education of all children and youth, and impose upon all to whom their management and care is committed, the duty of educating them; and if they can not do it themselves, to send them to the public schools."

SCHOOLS OF HIGH CHARACTER.

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to these schools, unless they make other adequate arrangements for their education, it follows as a natural conclusion that such schools must be made, in the words of Mr. Pierce, "amply sufficient to answer the just expectations of humanity and the demands of the State. Unless these schools are adequate to meet the wants of the whole community, private seminaries will be established by the rich, at which only their own children can be educated." He deprecated the establishment of such private schools to any considerable extent, because, as he believed, they would, if ably conducted and well endowed, "necessarily lead to a depreciation of the character of the free schools, and ultimately to their abandonment. The experience of the older states abundantly confirms this representation. Wherever the liberality and enterprise of individuals have established flourishing private institutions, they have uniformly had a pernicious influence upon the common schools. Instead of being improved and elevated by their proximity to such institutions, they have lost their character and usefulness. In these towns where private seminaries have been located and well sustained, the free schools will be found, without exception, to be in a miserable condition. Where such institutions exist, all whose means will allow them to do it, patronize them by sending their children. * * * The result is, that all who do this necessarily become indifferent towards the public schools, and lose all interest in their welfare. It may not be consistent with the principles of our constitution to prohibit private seminaries; but it is consistent with both the spirit and letter of our institutions to place the public schools upon high and elevated ground, to make them adequate to the wants of the whole commu-

nity; to place them on such a footing as to furnish the best instruction, not only in the more common, but in all the higher branches of elementary knowledge; so that those who send to them may have the satisfaction of knowing that their children are receiving as good instruction as the wealth of the Indias can purchase. * * * The primary schools should be of the first order. The academies (branches of the university) of the highest grade, and the universities assume and maintain a commanding position; and each and all of them to be so ably conducted as to give entire satisfaction to all reasonable, unprejudiced minds."

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

The position of Superintendent Pierce in relation to private schools and denominational colleges was vigorously opposed at that time by many influential friends of education, and has been severely criticised since by some writers. The merits or demerits of his views can not be fairly and justly estimated without a knowledge of the actual condition of educational affairs and of the schools in the older states, and of the general trend of public sentiment. The common elementary schools, at that period, were generally of the most unsatisfactory character. The well-to-do portion of the community held them in low esteem, if not in absolute contempt. In some sections they were regarded as "pauper schools," and were patronized only by those who could not meet the expense of tuition in private institutions. Public secondary schools, with a few solitary exceptions, did not exist. Every important town or neighborhood had its academy or seminary, continuing through the entire year,

or through a fall and spring term. "The common school revival," set on foot by Horace Mann and his co-workers, was only in its embryonic state; it had not yet taken a strong hold upon the public mind. It is no easy task to revolutionize the established habits and the deep-seated sentiments of an old community. Mr. Mann did not live long enough to see public high schools supplant the academies of New England in the estimation and patronage of people who could afford to pay the cost of private instruction.

In a young community, unhampered by old traditions, old customs, and old prejudices, it is possible to introduce new ideas, new methods, new institutions, with a reasonable prospect that they will be fairly considered, justly estimated, and readily adopted, if found worthy of acceptance. For these various reasons public educational institutions of all grades, from the primary school to the university, came into popular favor and were patronized by all classes in the west at an earlier period than in the east. Public sentiment was in an impressible and formative state; it had not yet crystalized. Superintendent Pierce and his immediate associates, wise enough to comprehend the exact situation, wished to take advantage of this fact and to give the public schools at least a fair chance to win popular favor, and to prove that they could furnish facilities for primary and secondary education of a quality excellent enough to satisfy the reasonable demands of the whole community. To accomplish this purpose it was necessary to turn the attention, interest, and effort of the public generally toward the public schools and away from private institutions. He desired to encourage and foster the public schools and to discourage private ones. He wrote: "With us, as a state,

all is new; and we are at liberty to adopt such principles, and form such rules of action as, on mature reflection, the great interests of learning may seem to require. It is respectfully suggested to the consideration of the Legislature, whether it will be desirable to incorporate such a number of private associations for the purpose of education as will have the effect to draw off the attention and interest of any considerable portion of the public from the institutions founded by the State."

SECOND REPORT.

In his second report he continued the discussion of some of the general principles upon which the school system should rest, the necessity of securing, in some way, the education of the whole population, and the policy which should be adopted in relation to private schools, especially those of collegiate rank. He wrote: "In laying the foundations of a new state, it is all important to provide, not only for the education of every individual of the present, but of each one of all succeeding generations. Unless ample provision is made for each individual of all classes, we can have no security that the great mass will ever be educated; for the great whole is made up of individuals. * * * Laws should be so framed in all cases, as to leave unimpaired, and in all its force, individual responsibility. It is the duty of parents to educate their children; and no legislative enactment should interfere with this obligation. But it is well known that this duty is neglected in innumerable instances. It is hence the right of the state so far to interpose its paternal authority, as to give additional might to this obligation, and make such provisions as will secure the

desired result. And it is exceedingly desirable that such a system be ultimately adopted as will make it the interest as well as the duty of each individual to unite and coöperate with all others in accomplishing an object worthy the highest consideration. * * * The truth is the only rational security the great body of the people can have, is to be found in the general diffusion of knowledge among themselves. But so generally do parents, unaided by sanction and encouragement of law, neglect the education of their children, that the great mass will remain uneducated, and the multitude of the rising generation grow up in ignorance of their duties as citizens of one vast commonwealth, unless the state effectually interpose its rightful authority, and make adequate provision for the instruction of all classes. * * * There is and can be no security of individual rights, persons, or property, except in an educated and virtuous community. In no other will liberty or life be regarded. But though an educated community may not necessarily be a virtuous, and hence a safe community, yet it is true in fact that an ignorant people are generally a vicious people. In the midst of such a people, free institutions never did and never can long subsist and flourish. Nothing but the strong arm of power can impose upon them such restraints as will keep them in subjugation to law and the rights of government."

The Superintendent again urged the importance of securing "a full supply of well qualified teachers," and "of making the public schools fully adequate to the wants of the entire community, and of furnishing them with teachers competent to discharge the duties of their high calling. If they are made, as they should be, decidedly superior to all other

schools, they will be patronized as well by the rich as the poor. No schools are so expensive as private schools. Thus in Cincinnati, where the greatest provision is made for the common school education of any city in the west, fifteen hundred children are taught in private schools at an annual expense of twenty-seven thousand dollars; while in the public schools about three thousand are taught at a yearly expense of twenty-five thousand dollars. And it is gratifying to learn that the best teachers are to be found in the public schools; and so judiciously are these schools managed, that they are fast superseding all private ones, and gaining the ascendency in the minds of all classes."

CHARTERS FOR COLLEGES.

In this report Mr. Pierce discussed, at considerable length the question of granting charters for private and denominational colleges. As his position upon this matter has been subjected to severe criticism, it is only common justice to allow him to present his views in his own language as fully as space will permit. He says: "The question of chartering private associations with university powers, giving the right of conferring degrees, is one of the first magnitude as it regards the higher branches of classical education. It is a question not of feeling, not of liberality, but a great question of state policy. It is a question involv- the highest consideration, the determination and settlement of which will affect the character of the state in all time to come. Its future reputation in the higher departments of literature and science depends chiefly on the decision of this question. When this decision

is finally made, it will not require the inspiration of a prophet to determine whether the state shall eventually assume the first rank in the republic of letters, by founding and rearing up an institution of noble stature and just proportions, worthy alike of the state and of learning, and equally worthy the name of a university, or whether the state shall ultimately sink to a low level in the world of knowledge, having institutions under the imposing name of colleges, scattered through the length and breadth of the land, without funds, without cabinets, without apparatus, without libraries, without talents, without character, and without the ability of ever attaining them. If one is granted, others must be, and there is no limit." Referring to the older eastern states and their numerous colleges, with their comparatively abundant resources in way of population and wealth, he said: "But even in these states they (the colleges) are so numerous that, with all their population, wealth and power, it is found to be exceedingly difficult to sustain and support them. Not more than three or four of them have ever been able to attain anything like a commanding position. Generally their rank is low and ever must be; and they are obliged to struggle from year to year for a bare existence. It is indeed a herculean task to found, raise up and maintain a college of an elevated character. The indispensable yearly expenditure of such an institution is necessarily great. If we go south or west of the states already enumerated, we shall find chartered institutions, under the imposing appellation of universities and colleges, almost without number. But we shall look in vain for an institution of eminence and high literary reputation. All these states are broken into fragments, each

one of which has its university or college; and the great contest seems to be for mere life; to live is all they do, and it is all they can expect to do. * * * How narrow-minded and miserable the policy that has resulted in such a state of things! a state of things to be exceedingly deplored, because directly at war with high attainments in literature, science, and the arts. Was there but a single institution in each of the different states, in which all funds, energies, patronage, and talents of its state were centered, what an elevated national literature, instead of the present stinted growth."

With a view "of obtaining light from the experience of others," Superintendent Pierce addressed a letter of inquiry to a number of "distinguished gentlemen and scholars, residing in different parts of the country," in which he said: "I wish to obtain the result of your observation as to the effect produced on the higher branches of literature and science by the multiplication of universities and colleges in the United States. We have just commenced our existence as a state; and the public mind is directed with much solicitude to the subject of education. But in the creation of the higher institutions of learning, a question has arisen whether we shall grant to an indefinite number of private associations the right of conferring degrees, or *for the present* concentrate our energies in one university. The question is expected to come up for discussion at the next session of our legislature; and it is highly important that we avail ourselves of all the light, which the wisdom and experience of others can furnish." He embodied in his report, replies from President Wayland, of Brown University; from President Edward Everett, of Harvard University; and from

several other distinguished educators, all of whom, with varying degrees of positiveness, expressed the opinion that it would be the part of wisdom, in a new state, with resources necessarily limited, to concentrate efforts and means upon a single institution, rather than to grant to a large number of private associations collegiate or university powers. In summing up the conclusions from his correspondence, Mr. Pierce said: "It results therefore with great clearness from the statements and reasonings presented, that the multiplication of institutions under the imposing name of universities and colleges, in our country, is to be regarded as an evil of great magnitude, as exceedingly detrimental to the interests of literature, science, and the arts." Instead, however, of recommending that no charters be granted to private institutions upon any conditions, he went on to say: "To guard effectually against the evils so universally deprecated, and in accordance with the practice in New York, let the regents of the university be empowered to grant charters of colleges only on condition that the association applying shall have actually secured, for the use of the institution, the sum of two hundred thousand dollars; of this sum, fifty thousand dollars, at least, should be invested in suitable buildings and other accommodations, and the balance, one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, so invested and secured as that the full amount of the interest arising therefrom, shall be yearly available for the support of the college, so long as it shall continue in operation, reserving to the state in all cases, the right of visitation and of an annual report. No institution ought ever to be allowed to assume the name and responsibility of a college on a less solid and permanent foundation."

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In concluding the discussion of this subject Mr. Pierce said: "Deeming the question above discussed to be one of vital importance, the Superintendent has felt constrained, in the outset of that career of improvement in which the state seems disposed to enter, to present to the consideration of the legislature, his views in an extended form on the subject. It is to be borne in mind, that the policy now adopted is destined to affect the literary standing and character of the state, not only for the time of the present generation, but so long as the republic and its institutions shall be preserved."

The views and recommendations of Superintendent Pierce were not fully adopted by the legislature; but they undoubtedly had an influence in checking, to a very considerable extent, the tendency to multiply unnecessarily private institutions of an educational character with collegiate powers. The drift of public sentiment today is strongly in the direction of the position which he assumed and attempted to fortify. Judicial candor compels one to acknowledge the strength of the position and the force of his reasoning as the conditions were at that period in the progress of the State. Changed conditions, however, have rendered the precautionary restrictions which he urged no longer needful or desirable. The public schools of all grades will now be benefited rather than injured by the establishment of a proper number of well-endowed, efficiently supported, and ably conducted private and denominational institutions.

COMPETENT TEACHERS.

Having completed, in his first report, his arguments for

the establishment of primary schools of high grade and sufficient in number to meet the wants of the whole community, Mr. Pierce proceeded to discuss the question of securing an adequate supply of qualified teachers. Keeping in mind the fact that no public normal school had, at that time, been opened in the United States, and that only a few of the most intelligent and earnest friends of common schools had begun to consider the importance of special preparation for the work of teaching, his views upon the subject are worthy of being repeated and held in remembrance by all friends of educational progress. His opinions had evidently been influenced by the report of Dr. C. E. Stowe upon the teachers' seminaries of Europe, by the report of M. Cousin, and by his acquaintance with the movements in the east under the leadership of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard and others, from whose writings he quoted. He said: "The most perfect organization of the entire system of schools, in all the varied departments of instruction, must fail of securing the desired results without a sufficient number of competent teachers." He quoted from an address before the American Institute of Instruction and from a memorial of that body to the Legislature of Massachusetts: "If education is a science, how is it to be understood without study? And if teaching is an art, how can it be successfully practiced without suitable preparation? How then can the profession of teacher be esteemed, if men generally enter it who know little or nothing of either? * * * * On what principle of common sense is it that a man is considered good enough for a teacher, because he has satisfactorily proved himself good for no one thing else? Why is it, that the utter want of health to exercise any other pro-

fession, is frequently the only reason why a man should be thrust into this, which requires more active mental labor in the discharge of its duties than any other profession whatsoever?" He also gave extracts from M. Cousin's report and from a recent report of Hon. John A. Dix, the Superintendent of schools in the State of New York, advocating the establishment of institutions for the proper education and training of teachers. It was stated that the regents of the university of New York had already "appended to eight existing academic institutions, a department expressly for the education of teachers." Mr. Pierce proposed to provide for teachers' departments in connection with the branches of the university to supply the immediate pressing demand for more competent instructors in the primary schools.

TEACHERS' WAGES.

In this connection he touched upon the subject of teachers' wages, and the imperative necessity of securing for them a more adequate compensation. He wrote: "It is obvious that the great reason why there has been such a deficiency in the number of qualified teachers, is to be found in an unwillingness on the part of the inhabitants to pay such wages as to secure the services of individuals of the required talents and qualifications. If so, it is confidently believed to be within the power of the state to obviate the difficulty. Let teachers be paid as they ought to be, let them receive such compensations as will remunerate them for their services, and sufficient numbers will be found to fit themselves for the business of teaching. And to secure their employment when fitted to teach, let the provisions of

the law be such that no township shall be entitled to any portion of the income of the public fund, which does not employ thoroughly educated teachers. It has been suggested that no man ought ever to be considered as qualified to teach a school, whose time is not worth at least thirty dollars a month; and that no female ought to be engaged in this work whose services are not worth fifteen dollars per month. This suggestion is certainly worthy of consideration; and it is also worthy of consideration whether it will not be expedient to fix on a minimum price, below which no teacher shall be entitled to receive aid from the avails of the public fund; and to provide prospectively that every teacher of the public schools shall have been through a regular course of training, and received from the academic board a diploma, setting forth his qualifications as a teacher. * * * The almost universal employment of incompetent teachers is a waste of money, a waste of time, and a waste of intellect; the greatest conceivable outrage under the name of benevolence and duty, that can be perpetrated upon the rights and dearest interests of the rising generation, tending directly to moral as well as political degradation and slavery. Whatever system may be adopted, and however perfect in form, it will prove itself essentially defective, unless it provides a sufficient number of teachers, well educated and bred to the profession, men qualified and competent, men who can elevate and leave their mark upon their pupils."

These excerpts present a tolerably completed outline of the general principles upon which Superintendent Pierce based his common school system and his plan for a university and its branches. Some of his more special suggestions

and recommendations will be noticed in other connections, and also his recommendations in relation to the management of educational funds and lands granted for educational purposes.

CHAPTER IV.

ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The report and recommendations of Superintendent Pierce were followed by the passage of three legislative acts, prepared under his direction, during the session commencing in January, 1837. Some changes were made in the act providing for the organization of primary schools, when the statutes were revised in 1838. As revised, it was published by order of the Legislature under the title "School Law of the State of Michigan."

Mr. Pierce says in his report: "These several acts constitute what may be termed the Michigan School System." One act provided "for the organization and support of Primary Schools;" one "for the organization and government of the University of Michigan;" and one "for the disposition of the University and Primary school lands, and for other purposes." The provisions of these acts make us acquainted with the original educational system of the State.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The unit of this system was, as it still is, the subdivision of the township known as the school district, not to exceed nine sections or one-fourth of the township. This limit was not removed until the opening year of the twentieth century. This small subdivision of the State was made practically almost independent in the management of its

educational affairs. Its internal organization was essentially the same as in the later years of the Territorial period. The right of suffrage upon all matters was given to all white male inhabitants over twenty-one years of age residing in the district and liable to be taxed for school purposes. Citizenship at that time was not of as much importance as the color of the skin.

POWERS OF THE DISTRICT.

The district was empowered to levy a tax, not exceeding five hundred dollars in any one year to provide a school house; to raise by tax ten dollars a year for the purchase of library books; to determine, by vote, if it choose to do so, the books to be used in the school or leave the selection to the district board; to determine the length of time the school should be kept, which should not be less than three months in each year; and to fix the amount of money to be raised by tax to pay the wages of teachers, the sum not to exceed ninety dollars in any one year.

The expense for fuel was to be paid by "the inhabitants sending pupils to school in proportion to the number of pupils and the time they shall attend." In case the apportionment of public money and the amount raised by district tax for teachers' wages were not sufficient for that purpose, the necessary additional sum was to be assessed upon the parents or guardians of the children in proportion to the number of children sent to the school and the time of attendance. This was a provision for the "rate-bill" which became the subject of so much debate in subsequent years.

DISTRICT OFFICERS.

The district officers were a moderator, an assessor, and a director, all elected for one year, and, when acting together, constituting a district board. The almost autonomous character of the district necessarily made the powers of these officers more extensive, and their duties more responsible than those of the same officers at the present time. They levied and collected taxes voted by the district, the assessor being in reality an assessor and also collector as well as treasurer. The moderator was, as now, a presiding officer. The director performed the usual duties of a clerk; with the advice and consent of the moderator and assessor, or either of them, employed teachers and paid them; took a census of the school children of the district; and made a full annual report to the board of township school inspectors. The board filled vacancies in its own membership, made a detailed report at the annual district meeting, and received such compensation as the district voted.

TOWNSHIP SCHOOL OFFICERS.

Under the State system the township school officers were less in number than under the previous Territorial system. The changes, on the admission of the State into the Union, in respect to the management of school lands made a reduction possible and desirable. A board of three school inspectors was chosen annually in the same manner as other township officers. The township clerk was ex-officio clerk of this board, but not a member; he kept the records, books, and papers of the board, received communications

from the superintendent of public instruction and transmitted reports to the county clerk and performed such other duties as the board might require. At a later period the number of inspectors was reduced to two and the township clerk was made a full member of the board. The board elected a chairman who was also treasurer and gave the usual bonds.

The board had power, and it was also their duty, to divide the township into districts and regulate their boundaries; to receive school and library moneys from the county treasurer and from the township collector; to apportion school and library moneys to the several districts in proportion to the number of children between the ages of five and seventeen; to make a report to the county clerk annually, embodying the substance of the reports from the directors of the several districts; in connection with the inspectors of other townships to form fractional districts of territory embraced in two or more adjoining townships; to examine teachers and to grant certificates valid for one year, in such form as the State Superintendent should prescribe; and to visit all the schools in the township, at least twice in each year, "to inquire into their condition, examine the scholars, and to give such advice to both teachers and scholars as they shall deem proper." The board filled its own vacancies, and the members were entitled to "the sum of one dollar and fifty cents per day" for their services. The law gave no specific directions in regard to meetings of the board for the examination of teachers, or for other purposes, except for organization, and only required that candidates for the position of teachers should be examined "in regard to moral character, learning, and ability to teach school."

DUTIES OF CERTAIN COUNTY OFFICERS.

The county clerk was required to receive all communications directed to him by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and to dispose of these as directed by that officer; and, on or before the twentieth of November, of each year, to make and transmit to the Superintendent a report in writing containing a statement of the whole number of townships in the county, and a copy of all the reports made to him by the township inspectors. The county board of supervisors or commissioners allowed the clerk such compensation for his service as they deemed proper.

DISTRICT LIBRARIES.

Every district which made the necessary provision for the care of a library, and voted a tax, not exceeding ten dollars, annually for the purchase of books, was entitled to receive its proportion of the clear proceeds of all fines collected in the county for any breach of the penal laws, and also its proportion of any moneys paid for exemption from military duty, such moneys being apportioned among the townships "according to the number of children between the ages of five and seventeen inclusive." The intention of the superintendent and the purpose of the law were to encourage the formation of district instead of township libraries.

ORGANIZATION OF THE UNIVERSITY.

The act for "the organization and government" of the University vested its management in a board of twelve regents, with the addition of a considerable number of *ex*

officio members, consisting of the Governor and several others of the State officials. The institution was to have three departments, all the professorships to be established were enumerated in the act. New professorships could be established only with the consent of the Legislature. The regents were required to make a full report of the condition of the university annually to a board of visitors appointed by the superintendent of public instruction. This board of visitors reported to the superintendent, and he reported to the legislature; and the plans of buildings were to be approved by the governor and the superintendent. In connection with the superintendent, the regents were authorized to establish branches of the university in different parts of the State, but not more than one in any county. No branch, however, could be established without special authority from the legislature. In connection with every branch a department for females was to be organized, whenever suitable buildings were provided. A department of agriculture was also to be established in some one of the branches, and a department especially appropriated to the education of teachers for the primary schools in each of them. Other departments might be organized at the discretion of the regents. An examination of this act shows the democratic trend of public sentiment at that period. The legislative body, as representatives of the people, granted powers and privileges with great caution, and reserved the authority to give direction in all matters of importance. The regents and the superintendent of public instruction were only the agents and servants of the law-making body. This theory of the legislature explains much that appeared in the subsequent evolution of the educational system of the State.

and shows that conflicts were inevitable between that body and other bodies created by the constitution and deriving their authority directly from that instrument. Practical co-"ordination" remained to be established by the lessons of experience.

The act relating to "the disposition of the university and primary school lands," of great imporance at that time, is related to our purpose only so far as it imposed certain duties of a permanent nature upon the superintendent of public instruction, and, by inference, defined and limited his powers. These duties will be indicated in the discussion of the next topic.

POWERS AND DUTIES OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Both the original constitution of 1835, and the revised constitution of 1850 gave the legislature arthority to define the powers and prescribe the duties of the superintendent of public instruction. The revised constitution said only that he should have the "general supervision of public instruction"—a statement which meant much or little, according to the interpretation put upon it by the legislative body. No single legislative act defined the extent of his powers or prescribed in full his duties. Various acts, directly or indirectly, touched upon the question of his powers, and involved the question of his duties. The first statute relating to education, enacted under the constitution of 1835, imposed upon the superintendent certain duties merely temporary in their nature. He was required to prepare and report to the legislature, at its next session, in 1837, a system of common

schools, and a plan for a university and its branches, and to perform various other duties relating chiefly to lands reserved for educational purposes. When this report had been made these duties were performed.

The act for organizing the university was approved March 18, 1837; the act providing for the organization of primary schools on the 20th of the same month, and the act for the disposition of university and primary school lands on the 21st. Each of these acts imposed certain duties of a permanent nature upon the superintendent and, by implication, invested him with certain powers.

The duties imposed by the act for the organization of the university were, to appoint a board of five visitors annually and to transmit their report to the legislature; to coöperate with the regents in establishing branches of the university; and to approve plans for the university buildings.

The act for organizing primary schools required the superintendent, by implication, to furnish the township school inspectors with blank forms for teachers' certificates; to receive reports from the county clerks; and to apportion to the various counties the proceeds of the school fund.

The act providing for the disposition of lands granted various powers and imposed corresponding duties. The superintendent was vested with authority to care for and dispose of such lands in accordance with the provisions of law, and to employ, with the approval of the governor, all necessary assistants. For several years the superintendent was a land commissioner rather than an educational officer. As his duties in this direction were fortunately only temporary, it is unnecessary to refer to them further in detail. The following duties imposed by this act, were generally of a

permanent character, and were, in the main, appropriate to his office:

1. To submit to the legislature an annual report exhibiting the condition of all educational funds; the condition of the public schools of all grades; and to present such other matters pertaining to his office and to the schools as he deemed proper.

2. To prepare and distribute suitable blank forms for the reports required of the various school officers; to provide regulations for the transaction of business under the school laws; to give proper instructions for the organization and government of the public schools; and such directions as he should think advisable in relation to courses of study.

3. To apportion the income of the school fund to the townships and cities of the State in proportion to the number of children between the ages of five and eighteen, and to apply the income of the university fund according to the provisions of the law.

4. To prepare annually and present to the auditor general a statement of the amount of money payable to the university and to the several counties from the educational funds, and to send to the county clerk notices of the amount to be paid to the different townships.

Some of these duties have continued without essential change until the present time; others have been modified to meet changed conditions; many others have been added during the evolution of the school system. It will be observed that the original powers of the superintendent, so far as they had relation to the proper functions of an educational officer, were very limited. Such limitation was in accordance with the general policy of the legislature at that period.

There has been a uniform tendency to a gradual extension of his authority, and to a corresponding increase of his duties and responsibilities.

A summary of the provisions of the several acts of the legislature, interpreted by the discussions and recommendations of Superintendent Pierce, shows the main features of the original "Michigan public school system" to be the following:

1. The system, as an organic whole, included educational institutions of every grade, from the primary school to the university, controlled and supported by the State. The branches of the university were to be public secondary schools, occupying the place of the numerous academies and other private schools in the older States. In this respect it differed from the best systems of the older States, and marked a distinct step of progress in public education. In no one of the older systems was there a regular organic connection between elementary and higher education. In the new system, the doors of the secondary schools opened, on one side toward the elementary schools, on the other side toward the university. This organic connection, temporarily broken by the necessary abandonment of the branches, was completely restored by the natural development of the public high schools.

2. Provision was made, in anticipation, for professional schools, not only of law and medicine, but of agriculture and for the training of teachers, as organic parts of the system. The agricultural college and normal school were to be coördinate members of the great whole, and not mere appendages.

3. The system provided better facilities for the education

of women "in the higher branches of knowledge" than were at that period furnished, to any considerable extent, by the public schools of the country. The doctrine of coeducation, even in the primary schools, was not then universally accepted; and only a few public high schools for girls had been established.

4. The system anticipated, in the near future, elementary schools made entirely free by public funds or by general taxation, and secondary and higher schools with only a nominal tuition fee. This was not a new feature so far as the elementary schools were concerned. Coupled with the idea of the free elementary school, required attendance was urged by Superintendent Pierce. This has finally been secured, but the proposition did not meet with universal approval at that period.

5. Provision was made for a State superintendent of Public Instruction, who should be the official head of a department of education, and should have a general supervision over the entire system. In a few States an office of similar character had been created by the legislature; but Michigan may properly claim the honor of being the first State to provide for such an office and such an officer in its constitution. Many other States have since followed her example.

These are the main features of the original Michigan educational system. It contains, either explicitly or implicitly, all the essential features of the system as it exists to-day, after the development of more than three-score years.

After the passage of the act organizing the system Mr. Pierce wrote: "The foundation of the system was laid by the convention that formed the constitution. * * * *

What remains is to carry it into successful operation, making from time to time such modifications as experience shall determine to be necessary and desirable. As the great and leading object of the system is the general improvement of the people themselves, and the elevation of their children to high and useful attainments, respectability, and moral worth, it can scarcely fail of being received with favor by an enlightened public, and supported by the concurrent voice and coöperation of the body of the people, though individuals may not approve it in all its features. Most certainly we have laid the foundation for raising a fabric of gigantic proportions, and great magnificence, one whose superstructure, when duly perfected by the wise hand and counsels of experience, can not fail of being the ornament and glory of Michigan in all coming time."

CHAPTER V.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMMON DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

The original primary school law made provision only for the organization and support of common or elementary schools in districts limited in extent to nine sections of land, or one-fourth of a township. Practically the districts, by action of the township school inspectors, generally embraced much less than nine sections. These schools constituted the basis of the educational system, and were universally regarded as the most important part of it. They were called the "people's colleges" and the "palladium" of free institutions, the guarantee of intelligence and virtue.

They were close to "the homes and hearths" of the people; they were, by the provisions of law, directly controlled by the people. They were democratic institutions. The people generally were extremely jealous of any proposed measure which appeared to limit their authority over them, or to remove these from their immediate control. A recognition of these facts is necessary to an understanding of the slow progress in the introduction of changes and improvements.

The local machinery for the management of district affairs has undergone very little change in sixty years. The original district board still exists, with only some slight modifications in the powers and duties of its three individual members, and of the board as a whole. The evolution and improvements have been mainly in the direction of (1) stud-

ies and their arrangement into regular courses; (2) of the relation of these schools to other parts of the school system; (3) of means of support; and (4) of supervision. Only the first two points will be considered in this chapter, the others being reserved for examination in another connection.

The only reference, in the original primary school law, to the studies which might be introduced and taught in the district schools, is found in the authority granted to the State Superintendent to make such suggestions as he deemed best "as to courses of study." The provision relating to the examination of teachers is equally indefinite. The examination was to be "in regard to moral character, learning, and ability to teach school." Directors were required to report the books used in their schools; from these the studies pursued could be inferred. In his report for 1839 Superintendent Pierce enumerated the studies which, in his judgment, should be taught in the primary schools, in addition to the traditional branches of reading, writing, and arithmetic, with possibly a little of geography. Among these were United States and local history; the resources, commerce, productions, and industries of our own State; civil government; something of physics; physiology so far as to give children some appropriate knowledge of their own bodies; some instructions in relation to the intellectual, moral, and religious natures of man; and of our own relations to society, to the State, and to God. The reasons for the introduction of these studies were given with considerable fullness. The fruit of his recommendations did not appear until a much later period.

The discussion of courses of study by several succeeding Superintendents had reference only to the union and graded

schools. No progress was made in arranging definite courses for the district schools under the original system of township supervision. During the period of county superintendency from 1867 to 1875, some necessary preliminary work was done, but this was pretty effectually undone under the township superintendency which followed. In 1881 a county board of three school examiners was created by legislative enactment, the secretary of the board being its executive officer. Considerable improvement was made, or at least begun, during the existence of this board. Superintendent V. B. Cochran, in his report for 1881, spoke with some enthusiasm of the new law and of the advantage which he anticipated from its provisions. He discussed with some detail the condition of the rural schools and the most serious defects in their management; among these he put "the lack of a proper system of grading, classification, and course of study." He was confident that a course could be arranged, somewhat more flexible than that of the larger schools, but yet adapted to the needs of the pupils and conforming to the natural sequence of studies. Mr. Cochran prepared such a course, and distributed it freely among the teachers of the district schools, with a program for the daily exercises, and earnestly invoked "the aid of examiners, inspectors, school officers, and teachers to give it force and effect in the schools under their charge." This was the first course of study for the district schools recommended officially by the State department, and urged upon the managers of these schools. It may be found, with the daily program and explanations in the report of 1881. The course was arranged on the supposition that the school should be divided into three sections, the first and second sections having each two

classes, and the third, or advanced section, only one class. In some exercises two classes were to be united, and in the third section reading and United States history were to alternate. In this way the classes and exercises for a day were reduced to twenty-two, the time given for each varying from ten to twenty minutes. The course contained no striking novelties; it provided for oral lessons in home geography, language, physiology, history, and civil government, and laid emphasis upon work of a practical nature.

Of this course of study and the efforts to introduce it, one of the county secretaries said, in a paper written some years later: "The course deserved a better fate than was in store for it. It was scarcely used. No one seemed ready and willing to go among the teachers and explain its feasibility; but it certainly laid a foundation for successive courses of study and opened up the question of the gradation of our rural schools." Mr. Cochran deserves much credit for his pioneer work. A considerable number of the county examiners became thoroughly interested in the subject, and at their annual meetings it received earnest consideration. The general sentiment seemed to be that a regular course of studies and a grading of the schools must go together. There was a tendency to emphasize a little too strongly the necessity for this union. The adoption of a graded course of instruction was a prerequisite to the grading of the pupils, and would naturally lead to that, as subsequent experience proved.

Superintendent H. R. Gass continued the work begun by Mr. Cochran, and published, in his report for 1883, a course of study, somewhat more extended than the previous one, embracing all the studies required for a third grade teacher's

certificate, and fitting scholars who completed it for entrance to a high school. Copies of this revised course were sent to school officers and teachers throughout the state, and at the institutes the course was explained and teachers were urged to adopt and follow it. The county examiners generally coöperated with the Superintendent and some little progress was made in its introduction. The lack of efficient and uniform county supervision was a serious and almost insuperable obstacle in the way of success. Four years later, at a meeting of county examiners, it was said: "We are all aware that attempts have been made to provide and enforce a graded course of work for the country schools. These attempts have all come to naught." The chief reason assigned for this failure was the want of supervision by any competent officer. The feeling was well nigh universal that no permanent progress could be made until the same authority that granted certificates should exercise supervision over the work of those who had been certificated. Efforts were therefore persistently put forth to secure a return to county supervision in some practicable form. These efforts resulted in the passage of an act in 1887, making provision for some degree of county supervision. The law was amended and improved in 1891, when county commissioners of schools were provided for with sufficient authority to render their services of practical value. Under the new law, the work of arranging and introducing regular courses of study, and of securing some good degree of grading in the schools, was carried forward with commendable zeal and energy and with constantly increasing success. In 1888, Superintendent Estabrook published a course more complete than any previously issued from the State depart-

ment. This was received with favor by the county examiners generally, but did not meet with that hearty approval which was desirable. Some of the county boards prepared courses of their own, and there was danger of hopeless confusion from a multiplicity of varying courses in adjoining counties. This danger was happily averted by the joint action of the county secretaries, and the State Superintendent. A committee of the secretaries, with the concurrence of the Superintendent, drew up a course retaining the valuable features of previous courses, but with such modification as experience had suggested. This course was published by the State department, with a commendatory introduction by the Superintendent, with a tabular synopsis, a daily program, and with full explanations and notes upon the various topics. The course was divided into eight grades, each grade occupying a year of eight school months. The introduction stated that the aim in the preparation of the course had been, to introduce nothing new into the schools; to render classification simple and easy; to regulate the steps from grade to grade so as to keep pupils interested and prevent waste of time; to put all the schools of a county on one common plan; to make supervision stronger and more effective, and to enlist the interest of school officers and parents in what the schools were trying to do for their children. One list of books helpful to teachers, and another of books suitable for supplementary reading and school libraries were appended. A second edition of the course was published in 1892 by Superintendent Ferris S. Fitch. Several successive manuals and courses of study have been published since, each presenting some new features, and including additions and improvements suggested by exper-

ience, and by the results already attained. The manual for 1901, the fifth edition, revised and published by Superintendent Delos Fall, makes, including the appendix and index, a pamphlet of 160 pages.

Space does not permit the presentation of an epitome of its contents, or of the course of study so elaborately drawn out, explained, and illustrated. It may be regarded as the embodied result of the efforts thus far made to secure a systematic and graded course of study and instruction for the common district schools, and as a fairly reliable index of the character and extent of the work done in them both by pupils and teachers. Compared with the first edition and with the previous tentative courses, it enables one to estimate, with a fair degree of accuracy, the progress of the rural schools of the State, taken as a whole, during the last fifteen years. If the advance has not been all that could be desired, it has at least been encouraging and affords reason for expecting even "better things" in the not remote future.

The grading of the schools has, as a rule, kept pace with the introduction of the graded course of studies. Circumstances have allowed the work to be more thoroughly done in some counties than in others, but few counties have failed to show some real and hopeful improvement.

RELATION OF THE DISTRICT SCHOOLS TO OTHER PARTS OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

During the early years of our educational history, the district schools sustained no appreciable relation to other parts of the school system, and a very slight relation to each

other, even within the same township. The books, the studies, the management and arrangements of each school, with very inconsiderable limitations, were determined by the school board of the district or by the wishes and whims of parents and pupils. Scholars, in most cases, studied such branches as they chose or as their parents directed, and used such books as the family happened to have. This state of affairs could be thoroughly changed only through efficient supervision accompanied by positive authority. As a first step, school boards were clothed with authority over books and studies; but, for obvious reasons, this authority has been exercised very sparingly and reluctantly. Schools in adjoining districts, or throughout a township, could have been brought into such relationship that pupils might pass from one to another without loss of time or additional expense for books by the concurrent action of the boards of these districts; but this was seldom or never done. A relation between the rural schools and the neighboring graded and high schools was the one most likely to come first into existence, not by any legislative provision, nor even by direct action of school boards, but by considerations of mutual advantage and convenience. As early as 1878 some efforts were being made in this direction. During a debate in the State Teachers' Association in that year, it was stated that, "A vital, though not official, relation between the country and the city schools may be fostered by, (1) a distribution of city courses of study among country teachers, (2) by influencing the pupils sent out from graded schools as teachers in the country schools to fit their pupils for the various grades of city schools."

While efforts of this kind reached and influenced com-

paratively few of the rural districts, they prepared the way for securing a closer voluntary relation between the country and the village and city schools. The regular graded course of studies, issued by the state department with the coöperation of the county commissioners, has gradually been introduced into a large number of the country schools. With the adoption of this course, many of the schools have become fairly well graded, as well as could be expected under existing conditions. Under a township system the work could be rendered more complete and also more permanent.

In connection with the introduction of a consecutive course of studies, in many counties regular and somewhat formal examinations are made of pupils who have completed the full course of eight grades. Diplomas are given to the successful candidates for examination, and graduating exercises of various kinds are held, which are found to stimulate the laudable ambition of scholars, and to increase the interest of parents in the work of the schools. By a voluntary arrangement with school officers and teachers, pupils are admitted to the neighboring high schools on the presentation of these diplomas. In this way, without the intervention of legal enactments, a relation, practically organic, is formed between the rural elementary schools and the secondary schools of a township or county, and through these secondary schools a relation is created between such elementary schools and the university and other higher institutions of learning. An approximation is thus made toward the ideal system of public instruction, and the elementary common schools are greatly benefited.

The extent of the influence of these various elements of progress may be inferred from the fact that, during the

year 1900, in one county 450 pupils were examined, of whom 185 received diplomas; in another county 300 were examined and 77 received diplomas; in another county 107 diplomas were granted.

The rural schools have been placed in another important organic relation by direct legislative enactment. In 1897 the Legislature passed an act requiring the Superintendent of Public Instruction to prepare a course of study for district schools, to be known as "The agricultural college course." The course must include the studies then required for a third grade teacher's certificate. The completion of this course, evidenced by a diploma or a certificate signed by the county commissioner of schools, entitles a student to admission to the freshman class of the college. This act is of importance for two reasons. It elevates the character of the district schools by putting them into organic legal relation with one of the higher educational institutions of the state, and it gives the State Superintendent, for the first time, authority to prescribe a uniform obligatory course of study for these schools. Commenting on this act, the State Superintendent said, in his report for 1897: "I wish to congratulate the people of the state on the passage of the law recognizing a graduate from the eighth grade of a country school as a suitable person to be received, without further examination, to the freshman class of one of our state educational institutions. * * * This step on the part of our legislature seems not only consistent, but a very helpful one to the young people of our country schools who desire to enter higher institutions of learning." In view of this brief record of the progress of the elementary district schools, and of existing conditions and prospects, it may be said that there is reason for feeling a very moderate degree of satisfaction with the results already attained, and for indulging in more hopeful anticipations for the future.

CHAPTER VI.

DEVELOPMENT OF UNION AND GRADED SCHOOLS.

In the first school law no provision was made for the union of districts or for the grading of schools. These features could not then be anticipated or provided for. The older States had only just begun to consider them in a tentative way. The first suggestion by our State department of the probable advantages which might follow from uniting contiguous districts and grading the pupils, appears in the report of Superintendent Comstock for the year 1844. After referring to the evils resulting from the multiplication of small districts, he wrote: "The consolidation of districts in our cities and rising villages is highly desirable. A district thus augmented would be rendered capable of erecting and furnishing a building containing four rooms for graduated schools. The rule of graduation should have reference alone to degrees of scholarship. * * * * The graduated schools would obviate the necessity of select seminaries. The necessity of select schools is founded in the imperfect character of the primary schools; elevate these, and the select schools will be superseded."

"In order to enable a district to carry out a plan analogous to the one intimated, it will be necessary to invoke the aid of legislation," he said. Authority must be given to raise more money by taxation for buildings, apparatus, and other school appliances. A little of detail in tracing the development of the union and graded system is necessary to enable

the people and the teachers of today to appreciate the fact that the "old-fashioned" district school, controlled by local officers and sacred in the eyes of many excellent people as the "palladium of our free institutions," did not give place to the modern graded school, even in the cities and large villages, without a struggle. The present opposition to the "township unit system" reminds one of the similar opposition to the early union schools. It cost much persistent effort to effect the transformation, and to overcome old prejudices and long-established habits. In the end the township system will come, as the union and graded system came.

In the year 1840, and even later, the largest towns in the State were divided and sub-divided into small school districts, and the schools were "kept" by the ordinary teachers of that period. Detroit had no public schools prior to 1841, and for several years after that date, the city was divided into such small districts. In 1838 Henry Barnard was lecturing in the principal cities and villages of Connecticut on the advantages of graded schools and explaining the nature of these schools. The establishment of the graded system in that State was attended with great difficulties, and went on very slowly. A few such schools were organized in New York as early as 1840. In 1855 Ohio had nearly a hundred and fifty of them and public sentiment was becoming strong in their favor. The leading educators of Michigan, as indicated by the language of Mr. Comstock in 1844, were beginning to appreciate their value, and the Legislature was induced to provide for a trial of the system. In the school code of 1846 this section appeared: "Whenever the board of inspectors of any town-

ship shall deem that the interest of any of the schools will be best promoted by so doing, they may form a single district out of any two or more districts therein, and may classify the pupils in such districts into two or more classes, according to their proficiency and advancement in learning, and require that such pupils be taught in distinct schools or departments as classified by them." The union district could have as many houses, if necessary, and raise as much money by taxation, as the several districts could before they were united. The act was imperfect but was sufficient for a beginning. In 1849 amendments were made providing that in districts having one hundred scholars between the ages of four and eighteen, the district board might be enlarged by the addition of four trustees. The duty of grading and classifying was transferred to this enlarged board. It was also provided that rate bills might be graded according to the studies pursued, and that the boundaries of the districts should not be changed without the written consent of the district boards.

Gradually the people of the larger villages began to take advantage of the provisions of the law, and during the years from 1846 to 1850 several union schools were established, and in some cases "large and commodious school houses" were erected.

In his report for 1847 Superintendent Ira Mayhew devoted considerable space to setting forth the peculiar advantages of graded schools. Condensed, the following were the chief advantages claimed: They were freely open to all; they are democratic institutions, since they bring together the children of all classes on terms of perfect equality; they are better than our common or the select schools,

because the principle of division of labor enables teachers to give more time and attention to individual pupils, since the number of classes assigned to teachers will be less and the recitation periods will be longer; the courses of study may be more extended, and the work in them more thoroughly done than in the ordinary schools: the cost of education will be less in union schools than in private select schools; union schools are very good substitutes for normal schools or teachers' seminaries, and will accomplish much in the improvement of the teachers of the common schools; the discipline and government of union graded schools are better than in select schools for obvious reasons.

Arguments to prove the advantages of graded schools seem an absurd waste of time and patience in the year 1900; they were absolutely necessary in the year 1847, and even later. In his report for the next year Mr. Mayhew states that union schools were fast gaining the confidence of the public; were generally surpassing the expectations of their founders; and he adds, they "may be made to constitute a connecting link between the ordinary common school and the State university."

Naturally, at first, the union schools were urged as the best means for supplying educational needs of the immediate localities in which they were situated. The idea of the "connecting link" was not emphasized and would not have been an effective argument with the people generally at that time. At a little later period it had proper influence.

For a few years the reports from the newly organized graded schools were irregular and incomplete. Hence it is impossible to trace their development with any large degree of accuracy. In 1857, in response to a circular sent

out by Superintendent Gregory, reports of considerable fullness were received from twenty-seven of these schools. The presumption is that nearly all the completely organized schools made reports. The following is a list of those established before 1860, so far as known: Flint, 1846; Jonesville and Battle Creek, 1847; Grand Rapids, 1848; Adrian, Port Huron, and Ypsilanti, 1849; Tecumseh and Lansing, 1852; Coldwater, Eaton Rapids, Plymouth, and East Saginaw, 1853; Bay City, 1854; Sturgis, 1855; Ann Arbor, Dexter, and Niles, 1856; Cassopolis, and Dowagiac, 1857; Fenton, and St. Clair, 1858; Charlotte, Clinton, Kalamazoo, and Monroe, 1859. After 1860 organization went on more rapidly, although in not a few cases against strong opposition. Most of the schools named above reported high school departments of varying degrees of excellence. The best organized and equipped were those of Adrian, Ann Arbor, Battle Creek, Coldwater, Jonesville, Kalamazoo, Monroe, and Ypsilanti. In 1860 Detroit reported a high school with a single teacher and an average attendance of thirty-seven pupils.

The State Teachers Association, in 1854, resolved that: "we hail the establishment of union schools as a great improvement in educational machinery." Today such a resolution would be regarded much as one would be which affirmed that sunshine and rain are great blessings, and books and libraries are of much service. In the year 1854 the resolution was needed and was the natural outcome of an earnest desire to influence public sentiment. This sentiment was still divided and in many localities the opposition to graded schools was very pronounced and active, even their warmest advocates were not entirely confident of

their success and permanency. It was feared by not a few real friends of educational progress that the bringing together, upon the same grounds and into the same buildings, of large numbers of children of different ages and of varying characters, would be attended by dangers and evils of a grave nature. It was feared that the morals of the better class of pupils would suffer serious harm, and that proper discipline and good government could be maintained only with extreme difficulty, if at all.

To obtain information upon these and other points, Superintendent Mayhew issued, in the year 1857, a circular to the officers of union schools, asking definite answers to twelve questions. In 1859, Superintendent Gregory sent out a similar circular, requesting replies to eighteen carefully prepared inquiries. Among the questions in these circulars were these: "Do advantages or disadvantages result from the co-education of the sexes; has the congregation of large numbers of children seriously increased the disorders in school government or been the occasion of immorality; if the school has at any period failed of success, to what was the failure to be attributed; what has been the general influence of the system of union schools on the attendance of the children at school, both as to the number in attendance and their regularity, and upon the general progress in study; what is the general estimation in which the school is held among the people, and how does this compare with the interest felt in the primary schools in your section of the State."

Generally the replies to these inquiries were decidedly favorable to the union and graded system. There had been some partial failures, due, it is said, to unfavorable local

conditions. The gathering of large numbers of children upon the same grounds had not proved detrimental to morals, although it had imposed extra care and watchfulness upon teachers. Nearly all the union schools had been made free to resident pupils by the voluntary action of the voters in the districts. In a few cases tuition fees were charged for some of the advanced studies in the high school departments. For several successive years the State reports devoted considerable space to the discussion of the advantages offered by these schools and to reports as to their conditions and progress.

Reference has already been made to the summary of the advantages of graded schools made by Mr. Mayhew. To impress these more thoroughly upon the people, Mr. Gregory in his report for 1861, gave an extended recapitulation of the benefits to be expected from them. His main points were the following: "They economize the time of teachers; the teaching is better; pupils are more thoroughly instructed, and make more rapid progress; each class receives its due share of time and attention; all school arrangements can be better adapted to the age and capacities of different classes of pupils; a much larger number of pupils will be able to pursue advanced studies without increasing their stay in school; they afford special facilities for teaching the higher branches of study and thus serve as secondary schools; the high school grades stimulate pupils in the lower grades; they offer the advantages of higher education to all children without regard to parentage or wealth; they make it possible to have longer terms of school, better buildings and a better supply of apparatus, and other means of instruction; they secure a better class of teachers, and by

bringing more teachers together, furnish a stimulus for improvement on their part; they can be better and more easily governed; the animating and inspiring influence of large numbers in the same school is of great value; the character of the school boards will be improved by the larger interests involved in the school; the people generally will have a higher regard for education; thorough supervision of all the schools will be made practicable; and finally the graded school is the most economical and most efficient form of school yet discovered." The educational history of the State during nearly half a century enables one to decide whether the advantages claimed for graded schools have been realized.

The provisions of the school law relating to graded schools, were gradually modified and improved, as experience suggested. An act of 1859 authorized any single district, or any district formed by the union of two or more districts, containing more than two hundred children of school age, to elect a district board of six trustees, some years later made five. This board was authorized to grade the school, employ all necessary teachers, fix rates of tuition for non-resident scholars, establish a high school when directed to do so by vote of the district, and to make all necessary rules and regulations for the management of the school. Tuition could be charged in the high school to resident pupils, or the district could make the school free in all grades to residents, and raise by tax the funds needed for the support of the schools.

The main features of this law have remained without essential changes to the present time. The number of children necessary for the organization of a graded school

was soon after changed from two to one hundred. By subsequent legislation the powers of the school board have been slightly modified and enlarged.

The growth of the union graded schools, by decades during the half century, has been as follows: In the year 1850 there were 7; 1860, 85;* 1870, 248;* 1880, 389; 1890, 513; 1900, 711.

The township school district is a natural outgrowth of the union district; it is simply the union of all the districts of a township, managed by a township school board, and supported by a township tax.

Prior to 1891 eight such districts had been organized by special acts of the Legislature. In that year a general law was enacted, allowing any township in the Upper Peninsula, to organize itself into a single district. In 1893 there were 67 township districts; in 1898, 115; in 1900, 119. It has been impossible up to this time to secure the passage of a general law for the establishment of township districts in the Lower Peninsula. It is, however, only a question of a little time, as the organization of "rural high schools," which have been provided for, can be effectually secured only by township action. At no distant day the benefits of the graded system will be extended to the people of the whole State. With this will come the era of good roads and the free transportation of pupils wherever such transportation is desirable. The day of the old-time, isolated, ungraded district school has nearly passed.

*Report of 1880, p. 334.

CHAPTER VII.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.—THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

Under the Territorial government secondary education, including preparation for higher education, was to be provided through schools established and controlled by the University. The first constitution of the State, in effect, continued this method by providing for the establishment of branches of the University. Upon certain conditions the Regents of the University and the Superintendent of public instruction were authorized, by legislative enactment, to organize branches in the various counties. These schools were to serve a three-fold purpose, provide for local needs, fit students for the University, and prepare teachers for the primary schools. This last function will be touched upon in another connection.

Branches were established at Pontiac, Monroe, Niles, Tecumseh, Detroit, Kalamazoo, Romeo, and White Pigeon. The school at Ann Arbor was spoken of sometimes as a branch and sometimes as a preparatory department of the University. Institutions, sometimes called branches, were located at Mackinac, Jackson, Utica, Coldwater, and Ypsilanti, but no appropriations were made by the regents for the support of these. Departments for young ladies were connected with the branches at Monroe, Niles, Tecumseh, White Pigeon, Romeo, and Kalamazoo, but generally only English studies were taught in these departments. The

branches had uncertain and intermittent lives, and after 1849 the regents made no appropriations for them.

It has been customary, in some quarters, to cast ridicule upon this scheme for establishing branches of the University as secondary and preparatory schools, and to regard it as one of the vagaries of an over-excited imagination. It requires no extraordinary powers of prevision to prophesy after the event. The plan soon proved to be impracticable at that time, and in the form proposed. It exists, however, at this time, in all its essential features, through the affiliation of the high schools with the University.

Superintendent Pierce and his immediate successors attached great importance to the branches, seemed indeed to consider these schools as absolutely necessary to the unity and efficiency of the public educational system of the State as a whole.

When it became evident that they could not be sustained from the University funds, nor from local contributions or local taxation, Mr. Pierce urged that, since one of their purposes was the preparation of teachers for the primary schools, it would be "just and right" that a portion of the income from the primary school fund should be appropriated for their support. He urged also that some part of the proceeds of the "Salt Spring" lands should be devoted to this object. Neither of these recommendations was considered favorably by the Legislature, and the branches were left to their fate. Some of them were transformed into private schools; others ceased to exist. The plan of providing public secondary education by means of branches of the University proved a failure, not because it was, in itself, chimerical, but because the educational resources and edu-

cational sentiment of the State were not sufficiently developed to make it successful.

The estimation put upon the branches is indicated by numerous official utterances, of which only a few can be quoted. A legislative committee in 1840 said: "If the system is carried out as commenced, the Regents will command the services of the ablest men in the country to conduct these branches. In other States, the preparation for college is left to voluntary, independent academies, no two following the same course of instruction, nor preparing students for any institution in particular. * * * * Michigan, by putting the branches on the footing of permanence and respectability with the University, and by enforcing uniformity of studies, has the advantage of having the best things taught, and from first to last, taught in the best manner." In 1851 the State Superintendent said: "No misfortune has ever occurred to this institution (The University) equal in extent to that which has grown out of that system of policy which has permitted, or rendered necessary, perhaps, the abandonment of branches; and it would seem to be of the first importance, if the means of the institution will permit the outlay of a large amount of capital for any purpose, that it should be directed into this channel. It is the settled judgment of this department that so soon, at least, as the debt (upon the University fund) is extinguished, further effort and renewed exertion should be made, that the University may represent itself in the different sections of the State through its branches." The public sentiment of the State favored the establishment of branches even at the risk of abandoning the central institution itself. A legislative act of 1851 prohibited the regents from erecting

additional buildings on the University grounds until one branch had been organized in each judicial district, and gave them authority to adopt as a branch, under certain limitations, any chartered literary institution in the State. A fortunate judicial decision relieved the regents from the dilemma in which this action of the Legislature had placed them; but destroyed the last hope of providing for secondary education through the branches.

After the final abandonment of the branches, secondary education was left for some years, to be furnished mainly by private schools and by denominational academies and "institutes," at that period a favorite name for schools of secondary work. Several of these institutions still exist in changed form, having been developed into colleges, or transformed into public high schools. Among these survivals are the Kalamazoo Literary Institute, now Kalamazoo College; Olivet Collegiate Institute, now Olivet College; Raisin Institute, now Raisin Valley Seminary; Spring Arbor Seminary, now become, by a series of changes, Albion College; Ypsilanti Seminary, now Ypsilanti High School; and an Academy, which by removal and transformation has become Hillsdale College.

The need of good secondary and preparatory schools became so urgent that propositions were made to grant State aid, upon some carefully prescribed conditions, to some of the private and chartered institutions. Superintendent Sherman thought "the proceeds of the principal arising from the sale of Swamp Lands" might wisely be applied to this purpose. Superintendent Mayhew, in his report for 1855-56, wrote: "It is respectfully submitted whether justice to this class of institutions, and a due regard to the interests

of sound learning and general education in the State, do not require the Legislature to make some suitable provision for their encouragement. * * * * The amount of assistance rendered them might be equitably arranged, having reference to the number of scholars in attendance upon them that are prepared to pursue—and are actually pursuing—an advanced course of scientific and classical study, such as is requisite for admission to the State University, and to the colleges of our country." Various efforts were made, during several successive years, to obtain legislative action in the direction suggested, but every effort ended in failure. No secondary schools were established or efficiently aided by direct legislation. The natural and progressive development of the graded school system gave to the State, after some years of experimenting, by the voluntary action of local communities, an adequate number of public secondary and preparatory institutions of high character. This result was not attained, however, without some severe struggles.

HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENTS.

The statute of 1859 gave the voters in graded school districts authority to establish high schools and to provide for their support by taxation. If the graded schools were to serve as the "connecting link" between the primary schools and the University or the college, and thus give unity to the public school system, such departments were an absolute necessity. This was universally admitted, and the authority to support these departments by public funds was not, at that time, very seriously questioned; though

there were, from the first, even among the most intelligent citizens, many who doubted and a few who denied the right of a district to use the proceeds of the primary school fund to support high schools. A very few went further and questioned the right to levy and collect a tax to pay for instruction in the higher branches, especially in the ancient languages, or to pay the salary of a general superintendent of schools. The questions then raised were vital. Until they were settled by some competent tribunal the public high school could not be regarded as a permanent institution. Its life was in constant danger, and public opinion must continue in a condition of unstable equilibrium. The actual state of affairs was stated in a paper, read before the State Teachers' Association in 1872, by city sperintendent W. S. Perry, as follows: "To any close observer of educational movements, it must be evident that our graded schools, in respect to the proper position, scope, and function of the high school, have reached an historical crisis. Considerations of economy, the purpose and relative value of secondary education, and the admission to the University of graduates from some of our high schools, are forcing the high school question into fresh prominence and to new decisions, if not to new departures. * * * * Our union schools have, indeed, been the glory of our school system. The high school, however, has not been a great success. Quite generally it has struggled against both natural difficulties and malignant enemies. In a few schools it has fought its way to recognition and public confidence. In many it holds a fitful existence by a precarious tenure. The question now is, what shall be done with it?"

In his report for 1872, Superintendent Hosford said:

"No little excitement has arisen in some places from the discussion of the question of the legality of public high schools. The claim has been made that this department formed no part of the school system recognized by law, and that all taxes imposed to raise money to sustain these schools were illegal. It is claimed to be unjust to sustain such a school. The law contemplated that such schools should be self-supporting by charge of tuition. The law merely provides that every child shall be educated up to a certain point, but it makes no provision by taxation for giving instruction beyond the ordinary English branches, and the school boards exceed their powers in providing for high schools at public expense. It is also contended that these boards have no right to employ superintendents and pay them from the public money. * * * * If these statements were mere rumors or complaints made by thoughtless men, who were dissatisfied with the tax they have to pay, they would not be worthy of the least notice; but since they come from men of character and standing, who have reputations as lawyers, and who profess to have given the subject careful consideration, I have deemed it best to call the attention of the Legislature to the subject. * * * * All must see that it is a question vital to the interests of our schools, and indeed to the whole school system. To attempt to make the high school departments self-sustaining by charging tuition would be to abolish them. Our graded schools, without the high school, would soon fall back to the condition of the district schools, and the whole system would be shorn of its unity and glory."

It became of the highest importance to the interests of education in the State that the question of the right of

school boards to establish and provide by taxation for the support of high schools, should be authoritatively settled. In order to secure a decision from the courts upon this matter, Hon. Charles E. Stuart, an ex-United States senator, a citizen of Kalamazoo, commenced a suit in the circuit court of that judicial district. The proceedings, for that reason, are commonly spoken of as the "Kalamazoo case." The judge of that circuit delivered a carefully prepared opinion sustaining the right of a school district to establish a high school, and to impose taxes and use public school funds for its support. The case went, as was expected by all parties, to the State Supreme court for final decision. The decision was rendered in July, 1874, being written by Justice T. M. Cooley. His statement of the case is so clear and definite that I copy a portion of the introduction for the purpose of showing the vital importance not only to the high schools and to secondary education, but to our educational system as a whole, of this deliverance of the highest judicial authority of the State. He said: "The bill in this case is filed to restrain the collection of such portion of the school taxes assessed against complainants for the year 1872, as have been voted for the support of the high school in that village, and for the payment of the salary of the superintendent. While nominally this is the end sought, the real purpose of this is wider and vastly more comprehensive than this brief statement would indicate, inasmuch as it seeks a judicial determination of the right of school authorities, in what are called union school districts of the State, to levy taxes upon the general public for the support of what, in this State, are known as high schools, and to make free, by such taxation, the instruction of child-

ren in other languages than the English. The bill is consequently of no small interest to all the people of the State; and to a large number of very flourishing schools it is of the very highest interest as their prosperity and usefulness depend upon the method in which they are supported, so that a blow at this method seems a blow at the schools themselves. It can never be unimportant to know that taxation, even for the most useful purpose, is warranted by the strict letter of the law, and whoever doubts its being so in any particular case, may well be justified by his doubts, in asking a legal investigation, that if errors or defects in the law are found to exist, there may be a review of the subject in legislation, and the whole matter be settled on legal grounds, in such manner and on such principles as the public will may indicate, and the Legislature may prescribe."

After this full statement of the issues involved, the opinion goes on to consider the provisions of the school law applicable to the case, and the general character of the legislation upon the subject of education and schools from the earliest territorial period, as indicating the intention and the opinions of the men, who have been charged with the administration of the government, in respect to the extent and range of the studies which might be taught in the public schools. In conclusion it was said: "If these facts do not demonstrate a general State policy beginning in 1817 and continuing until after the adoption of our present constitution, in the direction of free schools, in which education, and, at their option, the elements of classical education, might be brought within the reach of all the children in the State, then it seems to us nothing can demonstrate it. Neither in our State policy, in our constitution, or in our

laws, do we find the primary school districts restricted in the branches of Knowledge which their officers may cause to be taught, or the grade of instruction that may be given, if their voters consent, in regular form, to bear the expense and raise the taxes for the purpose."

The decision of the circuit judge was sustained, and the vexed questions were finally settled. It was determined that henceforth a high school, established by the votes of the people of a district in due form, had a legal and rightful existence, and might be supported by public funds and by direct taxation.

It is germane to add that no law of the State requires any district to organize and support a high school. Such schools are obviously necessary to the completeness, unity, and efficiency of our educational system; but they are dependent for their organization and continued existence upon the good-will and voluntary action of the people in the districts where they are located. Thus far this foundation has proved sufficient for their support; but it is not difficult to imagine an unexpected change in popular sentiment, or a sudden revulsion in feeling, which should sweep them entirely away in some localities, or should so cripple them as to render them of little value. It would seem the part of wisdom to guard against the possibility of such a disaster by a provision of law, requiring cities and towns with a certain population to provide for the support of high schools, allowing the grade of the schools to depend upon the number of inhabitants and the resources of the community.

Since the judicial decision, giving them a legal position in the public school system, the growth and development of the high schools have been as rapid as the conditions of

local communities required. The increase in number, by decades, is indicated by the figures following: 1857, 7; 1860, 45; 1870, 107; 1880, 182; 1890, 278; 1900, 389. It will be remembered that these schools are of several grades, and vary considerably in the extent of their courses of instructions; in respect to apparatus, libraries, number of teachers, and other requisites for efficient and thorough school work. The fact is generally recognized that the primary function of the high schools is to supply the local demand for secondary education. In addition to this function, the larger and best developed and equipped serve as the necessary "connecting link" between the elementary schools and the University and other institutions of advanced education in the State, thus giving unity and completeness to the State educational system.

The semi-organic relation between the high schools and the rural primary schools has been described in a previous chapter. Their connection with the University and other institutions of higher learning, requires a few words of explanation.

AFFILIATION WITH THE UNIVERSITY, ETC.

The first official action towards an affiliation of the high schools with the University, was suggested by acting President Frieze in his report for 1870. He said: "The high schools of the State, in general, are yearly coming into more intimate relations to the University, and sending increasing numbers to its halls. If University and local school authorities shall coöperate in elevating and multiplying their courses of study, and in arranging them as parts and grades of a connected and progressive system, it will mani-

festly be but the work of time to bring up the best and most enterprising of these seminaries to the position of gymnasiums. Many of them have already expressed themselves more than ready to carry into effect all the improvements which may be recommended in the preparatory courses, whether in ancient languages, in modern languages, or in scientific studies. As a means of strengthening, consolidating and elevating the whole State system, some of our best educators, both in the local schools and in the University, have proposed that a commission of examiners from the Academic Faculty should visit annually such schools as may desire it, and give certificates to those pupils who may be successful in their examinations, entitling them to admission, without further examinations to the University." In his report for the next year, President Frieze stated that, at the request of the school boards and Superintendents, committees of the Faculty had visited and made examinations in the schools of Adrian, Ann Arbor, Flint, and Jackson, and spoke with something of enthusiasm of the results anticipated from such visits.

In 1872 President Angell, who had just entered upon his official duties in the University, said: "It is with great pleasure that I refer to the first year's experience in forming a quasi organic connection between the University and the high schools." During the past year, he stated, fifty Freshmen had been admitted to the University on certificates from the high schools. Of these 28 came from the Ann Arbor school; 8 from Flint; 7 from Jackson; 3 from Detroit; 3 from Kalamazoo; and 1 from Adrian. These details are recorded to show the modest and tentative beginnings out of which the present condition has grown.

The next year the President expressed his satisfaction with the results of the experiment which had then been tried for two years. Nine schools had been placed upon the approved list after careful examination. Forty students had been admitted without examinations the previous year from six schools. His conclusion was that "we are certainly approximating towards a more substantial unity in our public system of education than any other State in the Union."

In 1876 President Angell, in his report, said: "We have, until this year, declined to approve any school which was not so organized and equipped as to be able to prepare students simultaneously for all our undergraduate courses. But we now propose to approve any good high school, which can show that it is thoroughly preparing students for any one of our classes. It seems better that a school should be encouraged to train students well in one or two courses than by undertaking more than it can do successfully, to fail in doing any of its work well." This was an important step so far as the development of the high schools was concerned, as the stimulating influence of affiliation was more widely extended. During the years from 1872 to 1880 the increase in the number of affiliated schools and in the number of diploma students was comparatively slow only sixteen schools having been placed upon the approved list, and the average number of diploma students received annually during this period being fifty-seven and a small fraction. After 1880 the increase was more rapid. In 1890 the approved high schools numbered 51, and the diploma students 159. In the year 1900 the number of schools was 108, and of students 266.

This relation between the University and the high schools has assumed such importance that the authorities of the University have recently designated one of the Professors officially as "Inspector of Schools."

The influence of affiliation in elevating the general character of the high schools, and in enlarging and extending the courses of study, is considered in another connection.

The affiliation of the schools with the University was naturally followed by the formation of a similar union with the normal schools, and with the colleges of the State. The practice of admitting graduates of the high schools, without examination, to the normal school at Ypsilanti, began, in a tentative way, as early as 1874. The list of affiliated schools, including a few private institutions, in 1900, numbered 139; and the number of students admitted on diplomas was 389. This semi-organic connection between these secondary and preparatory schools and the higher educational institutions of the State, has proved of great mutual advantage, besides giving to the public school system, as a whole, a practical organic unity. The dream of "Father Pierce" has come to be a substantial reality, and Michigan has a system of free public secondary education amply sufficient to supply all reasonable demands.

CHAPTER VIII.

DEVELOPMENT OF COURSES OF STUDIES.

The extent and character of the studies and instructions in the public schools, when the State school system was organized have already been referred to; and incidentally allusion has been made to the introduction of new studies, and of more advanced branches of study, made possible by the establishment of graded schools. The development of regular courses of study and the expansion of the sphere of instruction demand a little further consideration.

The first extended discussion of "a course of instruction" for graded schools, in an official document from our State department, is found in Superintendent Gregory's report for 1861. After stating certain fundamental principles which should guide in the selection and arrangement of studies, he went on to apply these in a suggested course for the four departments into which most of the graded schools were divided at the time.

The principles enunciated were, in substance, those now generally accepted: Adaptation to the pupil's mental activities; orderly progression; healthful influence upon character; and practical usefulness.

The course for the primary grades was given in detail, and included, in addition to the usual studies, systematic lessons on morals, object lessons, drawing, singing, and physical exercises or training. The "object lessons" occupied, to a considerable extent, the province of the more

modern "nature study," and "physical training" looked toward the present "manual training." The moral instruction would now be dignified by the name of "character building" or ethical teaching. The studies named for the high school were algebra, geometry, natural philosophy, botany, geology, chemistry, moral and mental philosophy, and ancient and modern languages. He advised that students preparing for college should be allowed to begin Latin in the grammar department, thus anticipating one of the more recent improvements.

In his report for the next year, Mr. Gregory gave considerable space to the primary or common schools, the "rural" schools as they are now generally called. He said: "I do not remember to have seen any regular course of studies proposed for the common schools. Nor am I certain that any such regular course will be generally received as feasible or desirable. But it must be evident to all reflecting minds, that all true education must proceed by some regular steps, and in some natural and rational order. It can not, therefore, be either a useless or unimportant service to offer some discussion of the real and relative usefulness of studies, and suggest some hints for the arrangement of these studies in a proper and natural course of study."

So far as the district schools are concerned this discussion belongs properly in another chapter; but as it is of a general character, it may appropriately enough find place in this connection. He made the course embrace; (1) language, comprehending talking, reading, orthography, composition and grammar; (2) thinking, exercises and instruction of various kinds designed to call into exercise all the mental powers; (3) common things, natural objects and

everyday facts which everybody should know; (4) arithmetic, mental and written; (5) natural philosophy, (now called physics); (6) physiology; (7) geography; (8) history; (9) vocal music; (10) writing and drawing, to give skill in the use of the hand with the pen and pencil; (11) morals, "embracing the culture of the conscience, the affections, moral sentiments and principles, and good behavior."

In concluding he said: "Whatever may be thought of the foregoing course, it is beyond dispute that the highest success of our schools imperatively demands the adoption of some settled plan of instruction."

The school boards of graded districts had already ample authority to prescribe courses of studies for their schools, but such courses were usually arranged hastily and according to the judgment or lack of judgment of the boards and teachers of each school. If the courses in different schools were alike, the similarity was the result of accident rather than of design. The evils incident to this state of affairs, led the superintendents and teachers of the best organized schools to seek to secure some approximation to agreement in their courses. The subject was agitated occasionally in the State Teachers' Association, but nothing definite was accomplished until after the organization of the "Association of City Superintendents." This body held a preliminary meeting in December of 1866, and completed its organization in July, 1868. Action was immediately taken, requesting the board of directors of the society to furnish, for the next meeting, a report or paper upon "A course of study for graded schools." It was found no easy task to formulate a course acceptable to all parties, owing, to a considerable extent, to the different conditions surrounding

different schools; but a course was finally agreed upon, which may be found in the State report for 1876, accompanied by an earnest recommendation of the State Superintendent that it be accepted in all the schools.

The course was arranged on the supposition that the graded schools should be divided into three departments, each department covering a period of four years. Very few innovations were introduced. Among these few was a provision for an increase of oral instruction in language and geography in the primary grades. United States history found its only place in the eighth grade. Something more of Science was provided for in the high school, and a year of general history was introduced. Two years of either French or German were allowed, but no Latin or Greek was put into this general typical course, although several of the larger high schools had, at that time, special classical courses fitting students for the University. With the existing conditions, it was not deemed expedient to urge the general introduction of the ancient languages. The adoption of this course was an important movement in the right direction. It aimed to secure an approach to uniformity of studies in the high schools of the State in place of the confusing variety hitherto prevailing. These efforts towards uniformity were greatly aided by the action of the authorities of the University in preparing the way for affiliation with that institution. The general trend of public sentiment in respect to the introduction or exclusion of particular studies was thus expressed, in the report of one of the city superintendents for the same year: "As it is impossible to find a place for every branch of learning in the public schools, some selection must necessarily be made; and it

is plain that the studies to be retained are those which bear most directly on the practical affairs of life. The greater part of our pupils must earn a livelihood by manual labor, and school instruction ought both to foster the industrial spirit, and at the same time supply that kind of knowledge which can be most readily turned to practical account."

For purpose of comparison, it may be of interest to note the number of students, in a few of the high schools, pursuing the ancient and modern languages twenty-five years ago. Ann Arbor, Latin 159, Greek 65, French 73, German 26; Battle Creek, Latin 33, Greek 6, French 4, German 22; Coldwater, Latin 58, Greek 18, French 34, German 12; Grand Rapids, Latin 119, Greek 32. French and German were taught but the the number studying these languages was not reported. The other schools, in which these languages were studied, probably had about the same relative numbers. Of the 79 graduates from the State Normal school in 1876, 13 had taken Latin, 9 Greek, and 6 both French and German.

In the attempts to select and arrange studies for the graded schools, and especially for the high school departments, two practical difficulties presented themselves. The first was the difficulty of providing courses equally well adapted both to the larger and the smaller schools, that is to schools in the cities with large numbers of pupils and abundant resources, and to schools in villages with comparatively small numbers of pupils and limited resources. The other difficulty was to select courses equally adapted to students who were not going beyond the high school, and to those who were preparing for the University or the College. It was said, in one of the State reports: "For the

smaller graded schools there is needed a course of study adapted to their peculiar field of work, and a standard of attainment which shall be within reach of all schools of this class. We must, first of all, recognize the fact that they can not, in many things, take their shape and pattern from the schools of the larger cities. Even if their field of work were in other respects the same, it is evident that districts with an enumeration of 500 children and under, can not maintain the same course of study and variety of grades of school work as are possible in larger towns. Yet the alternative in nearly all our smaller village schools seems to be 'full twelve years' course or nothing,' and the result in nearly every case is nothing." The general opinion of those most familiar with the actual conditions in schools of this class, was that a ten-years' course, with the studies carefully selected, would be much better for these schools than a course of twelve years, arranged with reference to the possibilities of the larger schools. It was thought by some that the course of the first ten years of the twelve years' course would meet the wants of the smaller schools. But a little reflection and examination showed that this would not be true. Some of the studies of the eleventh and twelfth years were desirable in the shorter course. A distinct course of studies, selected from the longer course, was necessary for schools of this class.

The second difficulty was that of preparing courses of studies equally adapted to the needs of students preparing for the University, or other higher institutions, and to the needs of those whose education ended with the secondary school. The report of a committee, whose authority is entitled to the most respectful consideration, affirmed that

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no such difficulty existed; that "every subject which is taught at all in a secondary school should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil so long as he pursues it, no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be, or at what point his education is to cease." This deliverance has not been accepted generally, and will not be by those acquainted with the conditions and needs of that large class of pupils who of necessity leave school even before the completion of the first half of a secondary course of studies. Regard must be had for studies and instruction practically useful, and for some of those branches which are called "information" studies. In 1894, in imitation of a larger organization, the State Teachers' Association appointed "a committee of ten" to arrange "a model course of study" for graded schools and to report this course at the next annual meeting. This committee acted in connection with similar committees of the "City Superintendents' Association" and of the "Schoolmasters' Club." The joint committee subdivided itself into three sections, called the high school, the grammar school, and the primary school section. The result of the first year's work was a partial report, containing two detailed primary school courses, the one, as was stated, "typifying the New Education in radical form, the other representing the Old Education in its latest and best estate." These courses elicited an extended discussion, and made evident the existence of irreconcilable differences of opinion. No formal action was taken upon them.

Suggested courses in language, in mathematics, and in United States history, for the grammar grades, were made, and discussed to some extent. A report from the high

school section showed the whole amount of work recommended for four years' study, but not distributed into years and terms, and also a table showing the work arranged by years and terms into four courses named, Classical, Latin-scientific, Scientific, and English. The limited debate upon the report indicated that no consensus of opinion had been reached even by the committee. Finally the whole matter was recommitted to the original committee, with instructions to complete their report and send it, in printed form, to members of the association some weeks before the next annual meeting, so that it might be carefully studied, and intelligently discussed at that time.

The committee made no report at the meeting of the following year, but a discussion, of considerable length, took place upon the subjects of "nature study" in all grades below the high school; of introducing geometry and algebra into elementary courses; and of giving place to United States history in every course of the high school and in every grade below the high school. No agreement was reached as to a uniform course of studies for graded and high schools. At the close of this protracted effort to formulate a course, or courses, of studies for general use, the matter remained essentially as at the beginning of the work. The courses recommended by the committees of the National Educational Association have had large influence upon the courses adopted in the Michigan schools; and the suggestions and recommendations of the authorities of the University have had still wider influences in certain directions. The State Normal College has helped to introduce modifications and improvements into the courses of many of the smaller high schools. There is a general uniformity

in the studies and instruction of the larger schools, and a fair degree of uniformity in the work of the smaller ones, though there is still considerable diversity arising partly from local conditions and partly from the idiosyncrasies of school boards and teachers. Experience seems to indicate that a course of studies, the same in every detail, is not desirable in all the graded schools of a State in which the conditions and resources of some neighborhoods differ so widely from those of others. While the general principles which should determine the selection and arrangement of studies remain the same in all places, the application of these principles is necessarily modified by circumstances.

In 1891 an act of the Legislature authorized school boards to provide rooms and all necessary apparatus and appliances for the establishment of Kindergartens, into which children between the ages of four and seven should be admitted and instructed. About sixty Kindergartens had been organized under this law up to the year 1900, and in many other schools some Kindergarten exercises and instruction had been provided in the primary grades. The courses of instruction in these institutions are generally understood. Further experience will doubtless produce important modifications in them.

During the last few years courses of instruction, in Manual training, varying in extent and excellence, have been introduced into several of the larger graded schools of the State. The State report for 1900 devoted forty pages to the discussion of various aspects of this subject, and presented the arguments in favor of its general introduction.

No uniform course of instruction has yet been adopted. The most complete equipment and the most extended courses are found in the Hackley school at Muskegon. Manual training is compulsory in the schools of that city from the fifth to the tenth grade inclusive. Eight instructors are employed in this department under the supervision of a competent director. Manual training courses thus far have been largely experimental, and many additions, subtractions, modifications, and improvements may be confidently anticipated within the next decade.

CHAPTER IX.

PROVISIONS FOR THE SUPPORT OF SCHOOLS.

In this chapter we shall consider only the provisions for the payment of teachers' wages and for other necessary current expenses of school administration, and not provisions for erecting buildings and for furnishing other permanent school appliances and conveniences. Funds for the payment of teachers and for other expenses of administration are derived (1) from the State, (2) from the township, and (3) from the district, village, or city in which the school is located.

1. *From the State.* The State holds in trust the Primary school fund; the interest of which, technically known as the "Primary school interest fund," is apportioned and distributed, at first annually, later semi-annually, to the various local school authorities, on the basis of the number of children of school ages in the township, district, village, or city. The larger part of this Primary school fund has been derived from the sale of the sixteenth section of land in each township, this section having been reserved for the support of common schools by Congress in the act providing for the organization of the Territory of Michigan, and in the subsequent act admitting the State into the Union. During the territorial period these sections were generally taken in charge by the township authorities; the lands were not sold, but leased for short periods, and the proceeds applied to the support of schools in the township.

Experience proved this plan of management to be unsatisfactory, and the act for the admission of the State very fortunately committed all lands reserved for educational purposes, to the care and control of the State as trustee. Until the establishment of the Land office in 1843, these lands were in immediate charge of the department of public instruction. After various unfortunate experiments in loaning and investing funds, the policy was finally adopted of retaining the proceeds of the sale of the school lands, in the treasury of the State, to be used as the Legislature might from time to time direct, the State itself being made debtor for the amount to the "Primary school fund." Time has proved this to be a wise and satisfactory arrangement. This part of the fund is known as the "Seven per cent fund." Its growth will be noted a little further on.

The other and smaller portion of this fund has been derived from the proceeds of the sale of the so-called "Swamp Lands." In 1850 Congress donated these lands to the State, the amount being between five and six million acres. In the year 1858, the Legislature enacted that: Fifty per cent of all moneys heretofore received and all moneys hereafter received from the sale of these lands, after deducting necessary expenses of sales, should be made a primary school fund, to bear interest at the rate of five per centum per annum. In 1887 the law was amended so that all the net proceeds from these lands go into this fund. Moneys coming from this source were known as the "five per cent fund."

The following table shows the increase of the Primary

school fund by decades, and its amount in 1900.

YEARS	TOTAL FUND	SEVEN % FUND	FIVE % FUND
1842	$ 359,809.41	$ 359,809.41	
1851	$ 811,766.36	$ 811,766.36	Amount first reported.
1860	$1,684,394.38	$1,684,394.38	$109,715.42 (1863)
1870	$2,700,834.63	$2,486,284.10	$214,550.53
1880	$3,340,949.44	$2,979,230.11	$361,719.33
1890	$4,563,436.12	$3,754,226.66	$809,209.46
1900	$5,054,696.03	$4,186,192.57	$868,503.46

The constitution provides that "All lands, the titles to which shall fail from a defect of heirs, shall escheat to the State; and the interest on the clear proceeds from the sales thereof, shall be appropriated exclusively to the support of primary schools." The increase of the school fund from this source has hardly been appreciable.

The following table shows the increase, by periods of five years, in the amount of money apportioned to the school districts from the Primary school interest fund, and the sum per scholar as far as this can be ascertained. It will be observed that a very large increase in the amount distributed took place between the years 1880 and 1890. This resulted from the provision of the constitution requiring that "All specific State taxes, except those received from the mining companies of the upper peninsula, should be applied in paying the interest upon the primary school, University, and other educational funds, and the interest and principal of the State debt, in the order herein recited, until the extinguishment of the State debt, other than the amounts due to educational funds, when such specific taxes shall be added to and constitute a part of the primary school interest

fund." The first addition to the interest fund from this source was made in 1881, and the apportionment per scholar was thereby raised from 47 cents in 1880 to $1.06 in the next year. The amount of surplus specific taxes transferred during several years, to this fund is indicated by the folfowing figures.

YEARS	AMOUNT	YEARS	AMOUNT
1881	$305,395.27	1890	$489,393.20
1882	$314,044.98	1899	$648,857.11
1885	$507,892.36	1900	$918,898.62

Table showing increase in apportionment from Primary school interest fund, and amount per scholar as far as ascertained.

YEARS	APPORTION M'T	PER SCHOL.	YEARS	APPORTION M'T	PER SCHOL.
1839	$ 20,248.96		1865	$ 134,634.42	$ .48
1840	$ 19,217.68		1870	$ 179,483.16	$ .48
1841	$ 10,789.36		1875	$ 217,499.06	$ .50
1845	$ 22,237.34	$ .28	1880	$ 226,954.60	$ .47
1850	$ 42,794.44	$ .34	1881	$ 533,340.49	$1.06
1855	$ 83,242.08	$ .48	1890	$ 848,726.76	$1.33
1860	$ 108,823.62	$ .46	1900	$1,531,857.45	$2.15

Money from this fund can be used only for the payment of teachers' wages.

2. From the Township. The first school law required the county commissioners (now supervisors) to assess each year a tax upon the various townships equal to the amount apportioned to them from the State primary school interest fund. The proceeds of this tax were to be distributed to

the several districts upon the same basis as the primary school fund. In 1841 the law was changed and the townships were authorized to raise annually by tax for school purposes a sum not exceeding one dollar for each child of school age. Two years later the law was again amended, and the supervisors were required without a vote of the townships, to levy a tax, for the support of schools, of $25 for the year 1843; of one half mill upon every dollar of valuation for 1844, and thereafter annually of one mill upon the dollar. In 1851 and 1852 the tax was made two mills; from 1853 to 1858, again one mill; from 1859 to 1878 two mills, and in 1879 it was again reduced to one mill, at which it has since remained. For the sake of brevity this tax, whether of one or two mills, is known as the "mill tax." Although not levied by vote of the townships, it is properly regarded as a township tax since it is assessed, collected, and apportioned by township officers. Unfortunately for the interest of the schools as a whole, each district receives, in the distribution of the proceeds of this tax, just the amount collected in the district. The increase in the proceeds of the mill tax is indicated by the following table.

YEARS	AMOUNT	YEARS	AMOUNT
	First Report		
1842	$ 1,120.14	1870	$405,111.64
1845	$ 5,521.67	1880	$379,757.93
1850	$ 17,957.30	1890	$658,305.11
1860	$262,130.80	1900	$649,012.05

The proceeds of the mill tax are to be used for the payment of teachers' wages and other necessary current expenses of the school; but if a surplus remains, after a school

has been maintained at least eight months in the school year, it may be appropriated "for the purpose of purchasing and enlarging school sites, or for building or repairing school-houses or for purchasing books for library, globes, maps and other school apparatus, or for any incidental expenses of the school." The township or city authorities are required to apportion to the several districts in the township or city, in April of each year, any surplus remaining of the "dog tax." This money may be used for general school purposes.

In township districts, since the district and the township are the same, all taxes levied for school purposes may properly be regarded as township taxes. The amount of such taxes is determined by the qualified electors at each annual meeting. In case the elctors neglect or refuse to do this, it is to be done by the township board of education.

3. From the district, village, or city. For a few years after the organization of the school system, district taxes were assessed and collected by the district officers, one of whom, at that time, was appropriately named assessor. These duties were soon transferred to the township officers, but the name assessor persisted for half a century. By the provisions of the original school law, a district could vote a tax not exceeding ninety dollars annually for teachers' wages and other current expenses. This provision was stricken out in 1840, and for a short period no direct tax could be voted for the support of teachers. For several years changes were made in the school law at nearly every session of the Legislature, especially in those sections relating to taxation. The revision of 1846 authorized a district to levy a tax, not exceeding one dollar for every scholar

in the district, for the support of the school. This provision remained essentially unchanged, so far as the common rural schools were concerned, until the passage of the act in 1869, abolishing the rate bill and making the public schools free. Graded districts, villages, and cities could raise a larger amount, not being subject to this limitation. As the abolition of the rate bill introduced new conditions, it will be of interest to make note of a few items at this point.

In the year 1855 there were paid for teachers' wages $295,231.20, of this amount $83,242.08 came from the primary school interest fund; $83,961.30 from the mill tax; $83,932.84 from rate bills; and only $44,094.98 from voluntary district taxes. In 1860 teachers' wages reached the sum of $467,286.50; of this $108,823.62 came from the primary school fund; $262,130.80 from the mill tax; $67,484.87 from rate bills; and only $28,846.63 from district taxes. In 1869, in July of which year the free school law took effect, teachers' wages were $1,177,847.86; of which amount $165,690.51 came from the school fund; $323,246.12 from the mill tax; $94,752.55 from rate bills; and $571,564.11 from district taxes. The great increase in the amount of district taxes for teachers' wages, from 1860 to 1869, resulted from the large increase of graded schools, most of which had been made free by the spontaneous action of the people of the graded districts. The total amount reported as raised from rate bills, in the years from 1846 to 1867, was $1,658,414.02. The amount raised in this way from 1836 to 1846, cannot be determined from the school reports. The prolonged struggle to secure free schools is described in another chapter.

District taxation for the support of schools, not for buildings and other permanent improvements under the free school laws of 1869, was governed by the following provision: "It shall be the duty of the district board to estimate the amount necessary to be raised, for the entire support of the school, including fuel and other incidental expenses, and for deficiencies for previous year, and * * * * make a written report of the amount so determined, to the supervisor of the township, * * * *. and the same shall be levied upon the taxable property of the district, collected and returned in the same manner as township taxes." It will be noticed that this tax is not voted by the electors of the district. The voters, at the annual meeting, may determine the length of time the school shall be taught, subject to the minimum limit imposed by the law, and this having been done, the district board must see that the necessary means are provided. Subsequent amendments have limited the power of the board in one particular. In districts having less than thirty scholars, the amount fixed upon by the board must not, including the other school funds, exceed the sum of fifty dollars a month for the period during which the school is to be held. It will be observed that a provision for fuel is especially mentioned. This is explained by the fact that previous to this time fuel, like tuition, had been furnished by a rate bill or by voluntary contribution. It should also be added, in justice to our predecessors, that the district board could remit the rate bills for tuition and fuel to persons in straitened circumstances, and raise the amount so remitted by a tax on the district.

The increase in the resources of the districts, not including loans or balances for the preceding year or other in-

cidental sources, by decades since 1870 is shown in the following table.

It will be noticed that tuition of non-resident pupils has become an item of considerable importance.

Years	Primary School Interest Fund	Mill Tax	District Taxes for All Objects	Tuition of Non-Reside'ts
1870	$ 177,313.79	$405,111.64	$1,742,578.87	$26,064.14
1880	$ 223,525.21	$379,757.93	$2,074,073.37	$34,925.68
1890	$ 795,813.47	$658,305.11	$3,451,729.93	$57,815.57
1900	$1,030,538.89	$649,012.05	$4,763,966.19	$87,277.89

The total revenue of the districts, from all sources, in 1870 was $3,154,221.28; in 1880, $3,789,197.97; in 1890, $6,763,125.20; in 1900, $9,069,655.80.

CHAPTER X.

FREE SCHOOLS AND REQUIRED ATTENDANCE.

From the beginning of his educational work Superintendent Pierce advocated free schools, that is, schools supported entirely from the income of permanent funds and by taxation in some form upon the property of the State. And as a natural correlative he favored compulsory attendance for a certain portion of the year. In both these positions he was a long distance in advance of the general public sentiment of his day. The idea of a tuition fee was inherited from the territorial period, and the rate bill system was borrowed from New York.

In his first report Mr. Pierce said: "Let free schools be established and maintained in perpetuity, and there can be no such thing as a permanent aristocracy in our land; for the monopoly of wealth is powerless when mind is allowed freely to come in contact with mind. It is only by erecting a barrier between the rich and the poor, which can be done only by allowing the rich a monopoly of learning as well as wealth, that such an aristocracy can be established. The operation of the free school system has a powerful tendency to prevent the erection of this barrier. * * * * Can any plan be devised by which the principles of knowledge and virtue may be so diffused among the great body of the people, as the existence and perpetuity of our institutions require?

The general impression is, that it may be done effectually by a well digested system of free schools. There is no alternative, this being the only process by which the whole population can be made acquainted with their rights and duties as citizens of our commonwealth." In speaking of attendance upon the schools he wrote: "It is proposed as a subject worthy the greatest consideration, whether the State can fulfil its high obligation to itself and suffer any to grow up in ignorance. It is apprehended to be the duty of the government to require of all persons, having the care of children, their education. And effectually to secure the accomplishment of this object, they should be required to send them to school the constitutional proportion of the year, between the ages of five and seventeen. * * * * And in all this there is nothing inconsistent with the principles of rational liberty. It is merely providing for the safety of the State, for its health, happiness and vigorous growth. This duty stands on precisely the same ground as the law which obliges all the citizens to be enrolled and occasionally do military duty. It is a wise precautionary measure for the public security." These topics are further discussed in his second report: and, while he admits that primarily parents are responsible for the education of their children, he says: "It is well known this duty is neglected in innumerable instances. It is hence the right of the State so far to interpose its paternal authority, as to give additional weight to this obligation, and make such provision as will secure the desired result."

The Legislature was slow to respond to any suggestions or recommendations for making the public schools free, and providing for their support by either State, Township,

or District taxation. Public sentiment did not at that period, demand such action. The first important step in the direction of free schools was taken in an act passed in 1842 relative to public schools in Detroit. In a sketch of the public schools of that city, written in 1850, by D. Bethune Duffield, Esq., the statement was made that, "previous to the year 1841, no such thing as a free school was known in the city of Detroit." Elementary education was in a most deplorable condition. There were scattered about the city twenty-nine schools, only one of which really deserved the name of school. The whole number of pupils in attendance upon these schools, such as they were, was only 700, in a city of nearly 10,000 inhabitants. The average cost of tuition was $17 a year for each scholar. This state of affairs, when fully understood, naturally aroused the attention and excited the interest of the benevolent and public spirited citizens. The act just referred to was secured from the Legislature. This law consolidated all the districts of the city into one, and created "The Board of Education of the City of Detroit." The powers of taxation for school purposes were at first carefully limited, but were sufficient to make the beginning of a system of free public schools. This was the first provision, of an extensive character, for such schools in the State. A little later the establishment of the graded and union system gradually provided other free schools, but their growth was slow. Reference has been made in another chapter to the discussions in the constitution directing the Legislature, within five years after the adoption of the constitution, to provide for a free school in every district of the State, for at least three months in each year. If the Legislature had heeded this mandate of the consti-

tution, Michigan would not be compelled to bear the disgrace of having been one of the last States to abolish the "rate bill." But no power, save an imperative and strongly expressed public sentiment can coerce the Legislative body of an American State: and public sentiment in our State between the years 1850 and 1860 was not unanimously imperative in this direction.

The state of public opinion generally may be inferred from a debate which occurred in the State teachers' association in the year 1858. At its meeting in that year a paper was read upon the question: "Ought our schools to be free?" The reader of the paper did not, on the whole, favor schools entirely free except under certain peculiar conditions. In the debate which followsd the reading, Dr. A. Winchell of the State University, expressed grave doubts of the wisdom of making the public schools generally free, although some of the union schools might be made so with advantage. He thought a great public school fund an injury rather than a benefit to the cause of education. Men, he said, estimated the value of a thing by its direct, obvious cost to them. If education costs nothing it will be estimated accordingly.

Professor Hosford of Olivet College concurred in the views of Dr. Winchell. He also expressed opposition to a compulsory school law. Among other things he said: "Cheapen education to the zero point, and the masses will value it at zero. You will frustrate the design unless you compel the people to keep their children in school. What would our people think to see a law passed making it a penal offense to keep a child from school? It would not do. We may have the compulsory system, but this sys-

tem is totally repugnant to our institutions." At a later period, when Superintendent of Public Instruction, Mr. Hosford showed that his views had undergone a change. A considerable number of the members of the association, however, took strong ground in favor of free schools. The result of a vote upon the question of making the public schools free by direct taxation would have been doubtful at that time, although a resolution declaring that the rate bill system, in its then form, ought to be abolished was adopted unanimously. These excerpts have been given to show the divided state of public sentiment even among teachers and other good friends of education at that period, and to explain the delay of the Legislature in obeying the constitutional requirement. Free schools were provided for when the demand for them was unanimous enough and loud enough to be distinctly heard in the legislative halls, and not till then.

A decade later the association, without an opposing voice, resolved, "that school rates should be abolished, and the funds needed to make our schools free to all should be raised by an impartial tax by the State." Public opinion had ripened and crystalized into a definite form, and it was heeded by the law-making powers. A legislative act was passed which took effect on the third of July, 1869, providing for primary schools absolutely free to all the children of the State. For fourteen years, upon one plea and another, the mandate of the fundamental law of the commonwealth had been disregarded.

In dismissing this subject, it may not be digressing too far to present a few historical facts regarding the rate bill and the support of schools, borrowed from one of the Con-

necticut school reports and copied in part into our own State report of 1868. The report said: "The greatest hindrance to the improvement of our schools, is the rate bill; it is wrong in principle and mischievous in practice. It is alike the duty and the interest of the State to furnish substantially equal common school privileges to the children of all classes. Self-protection is the right and duty of government. For this purpose it may maintain armies and navies. But cheaper, safer, every way better than forts and fleets, is universal education." It is unnecessary today to quote or repeat arguments to prove the advantages of free schools, but it was otherwise as late as 1863. The reports showed that New York made her schools free in 1867; Ohio as early as 1853; Illinois never had the rate bill; her schools had, from the first, been free six months in the year; the schools of Indiana had also been free from their origin in 1852. The schools of Pennsylvania were made free in 1834. None of the New England States had a rate bill in 1868 except Connecticut; Rhode Island had just abolished it; Maine and New Hampshire always had free schools; the Massachusetts schools had been free for nearly two hundred years. Connecticut and New Jersey disputed with Michigan the doubtful honor of being last to make their schools free. New Jersey won, however, as her schools were not made entirely free until 1871.

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE.

The schools having been made free, and the principle having been accepted that the property of the State should bear the burden of educating the children of the State, the question of compulsory attendance upon the schools remained

to be considered and settled. Logically, a law demanding such attendance, wherever such a law was necessary, seemed a natural and inevitable corollary, and practically it was, in some cases, a necessity, if the State was to make sure of an adequate return for its expenditures. It was a matter of no little interest to note, as debates went on, the change in the sentiment of the teachers' association upon the subject since the discussion in 1858. A similar change had been going on among the people generally, but the consensus of opinion was not yet very strong nor very demonstrative. It was, however, strong enough to induce the Legislature of 1871 to pass a law entitled "An act to compel children to attend school." This act required all children between the ages of eight and fourteen, unless excused by the school board of the district on account of bodily or mental condition, to be sent to a public school for a period of at least twelve weeks, at least six of these to be consecutive, in each year, unless it was shown that such children were properly taught at home or in private schools. Parents or guardians failing to comply with the provisions of the law were liable to a fine of five to ten dollars for the first offense, and of ten to twenty dollars for any subsequent offense. The director or president of the school board of the district was required to see to the enforcement of the law, whenever complaint was made to him, under penalty of a fine of twenty to fifty dollars. In the report of 1872 Superintendent Hosford wrote: "The moral effect of this law was very manifest. Many children found their way to the school room, not waiting to be compelled to attend by force of law. The final result can only be determined by the faithfulness with which the law was executed. Mr. Hosford expressed

the opinion that the act for compulsory attendance should be supplemented by a law dealing with "incorrigible truancy," and quoted from a recent Massachusetts report in confirmation of his views. The law remained without essential change until 1883. Its enforcement was generally very lax, and in many districts it was, "to all intents and purposes," a dead letter.

A new law was enacted in 1883 which was amended in 1885. This act was designed to remedy the defects of the earlier law, and to make better provision for its enforcement. It increased the time of required attendance to four months; forbade the employment of children under fourteen years of age unless they had attended school the required four months; made the violation of the law a misdemeanor and imposed a fine of five to ten dollars for the first offense, and not less than ten dollars for each subsequent offense.

This act was reinforced by two other laws passed in 1885; one "Regulating the employment of children," the other for the "Compulsory reformatory education of Juvenile disorderly persons."

The first of these laws imposed a fine of fifty dollars for each offense, upon any person or corporation employing a child under fourteen years of age in violation of the provisions of the compulsory education act, and made the chief of police in cities, and the supervisors in townships responsible for the enforcement of the law. The second of these acts authorized the establishment of ungraded schools in the villages and cities having a graded system of schools, to which certain classes of children between the ages of eight and sixteen, designated as "Juvenile disorderly persons," should be sent for instruction and training. Three

classes of such children were named: (1) Habitual truants from any school; (2) children who were, while attending any regular school, incorrigibly turbulent, disobedient, vicious or immoral in conduct; (3) children not attending any school, habitually frequenting streets and public places, having no lawful business, employment, or occupation, which necessarily prevented attendance at school. Provision was made for the appointment of truant officers whose duty it was to execute the law. Under this act, in extreme cases, juvenile disorderly persons might be sentenced to the Industrial school for boys or the Industrial home for girls.

Another law, along the same line, was enacted in 1887, entitled, "An act to prevent crime and punish truancy." This statute affected schools only indirectly, being designed to reach habitual truants, loungers, and idlers of both sexes who were beyond the control of their parents, and in danger of becoming confirmed criminals.

The statutes in relation to compulsory education and the punishment of truancy were revised, and amended in a few points, in 1895, and were further slightly amended in 1897 and 1901.

The following are the most important provisions of the law at present.

1. All children in the State between the ages of eight and fifteen years, and in the cities between the ages of seven and fifteen, are required to attend school for a period of at least four months in each school year. In cities, with a regular police force, the time is not limited to four months, but, under certain conditions, extends through the whole school year. Children who have already acquired the common branches, or are being properly taught in private

schools, or are physically unable to attend school, are exempt from the provisions of the law. In cities, children over fourteen may be excused from attendance for a part or for the whole of the year until they are fifteen. In the country districts children under nine are exempt from required attendance if the school is not within two miles of their homes.

2. The school boards of all graded and township districts are required to appoint truant officers, and the boards of school districts with a population of fifty or more may appoint such officers. In districts where no truant officers are specially appointed, the chairman of the township board of school inspectors must perform the duties of such officers. In cities having a regularly organized police force, the police authorities, at the request of the school authorities, are required to detail one or more members of the police to perform the duties of truant officers.

3. Teachers must be furnished with a copy of the school census, and must report, at the close of each month of school, to the truant officers the names of children on the census list, who have not attended school regularly during the preceeding month. It is then the duty of the truant officers to investigate all such cases, and to see that the provisions of the law are enforced.

4. Parents or guardians failing to comply with the provisions of the law, are liable to a fine of not less than five nor more than fifty dollars, or to imprisonment for not less than two nor more than ninety days, or to both fine and imprisonment in the discretion of the court.

While it can not be affirmed that the law is enforced in all the cities and districts of the State, it can be said with

confidence that there is a growing demand for its proper enforcement; and that compulsory attendance upon a free school is not regarded by any considerable number of our people, as inconsistent with the spirit of our institutions, or as an infringement upon the natural rights of parents.

CHAPTER XI.

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS.

Reference was made in the third chapter to the views expressed by Superintendent Pierce upon the importance of securing a supply of competent teachers for the common schools. A little further reference to his opinions and to those of his immediate successors seems desirable to make it clear that the demand for teachers, especially educated and trained, is not of recent origin. The belief that "anybody could keep school" was not universal sixty years ago. Some of the suggestions of Mr. Pierce were impracticable, but they are, nevertheless, worth recalling. Among other things he wrote:

"In the system which we as a State may adopt, it will be important to make such provision as will infallibly secure a sufficient number of competent teachers. It will be essential to make teaching the business of men, and then men will be found to do the business of teaching. No doubt, as things are now, it will be thought difficult if not impossible, to find a sufficient number of persons qualified for the employment, or who will venture to engage in preparing themselves for it."

After stating the fact that the exceedingly meager compensation given to teachers presented an obstacle in the way of securing desirable instructors for the common schools, he proceeds, "It is hence obvious that the great reason why there is such a deficiency in the number of qualified teachers,

is to be found in the unwillingness on the part of the inhabitants to pay such wages as to secure the services of individuals of the required talents and qualifications. If so, it is confidently believed to be within the power of the State to obviate the difficulty. Let teachers be paid as they ought to be, let them receive such compensation as will remunerate them for their services, and sufficient numbers will be found to fit themselves for the business of teaching. And to secure their employment when fitted to teach, let the provisions of the law be such that no township shall be entitled to any portion of the income of the public fund, which does not employ thoroughly educated teachers. It has been suggested that no man ought ever to be considered as qualified to teach a school whose time is not worth at least thirty dollars per month; and that no female ought to be engaged in this work whose services are not worth fifteen dollars per month. This suggestion is certainly worthy of consideration; and it is also worthy of consideration whether it will not be expedient to fix on a minimum price below which no teacher shall be entitled to receive aid from the avails of the public fund, and to provide prospectively that every teacher of the public schools shall have been through a regular course of training, and shall have received from the academic board a diploma, setting forth his qualifications as a teacher."

For the preparation of teachers he proposed that a normal department should form an essential part of the branches of the University, which were to be established in such counties as complied with certain provisions of law. This department was to be open without charge to all who wished to prepare for teaching on condition that they should give

a pledge to repay the regular tuition, in case they failed to teach at least three years out of four immediately after leaving the school.

In his second report he again urged the necessity of making the branches fitting schools for teachers; and in his last report, at the close of the year 1840, he said:

"We can look to no other source for educated, well qualified and competent teachers. Without these, the primary schools cannot accomplish what is and ought to be expected of them. But without further aid than can be derived from the proceeds of the University fund, the branches, it is feared, must languish. It is, therefore, respectfully submitted that the lands granted to the State in connection with the salt springs be appropriated for the support of said branches."

One may be pardoned, as he looks back over the many fruitless efforts of succeeding years, for feeling a sort of half painful regret that the magnificent scheme of "Father Pierce" could not have been realized, and a dozen or twenty county academies and teachers' seminaries have been established and endowed from the proceeds of the seventy-two sections of salt spring lands donated by Congress to the State. The plan of our first Suprintendent for elevating teaching to the rank and dignity of a learned profession, by providing for the proper education of a sufficient number of qualified teachers, failed. The time had not yet come for such a consumation, however devoutly it might be wished. Evolution is a slow process and cannot be forced or even much hastened. But none the less are credit and honor due to the wisdom of his intentions and the earnestness of his efforts.

It is of interest to note that the plans and efforts of the superintendent were seconded and supported by many of the other officers of the State. The first governor, Mr. Mason, in his message for 1837, said, "In the organization of your primary schools, which are the foundation upon which your whole system of education must be based, the first measure essential to their success and good government is the appointment of good teachers, of the highest character, both moral and intellectual. Liberal salaries should be allowed the instructor, and without this, you may rest assured you must fail in your object; as individuals in all respects competent to the charge of your schools will be excluded from them by the parsimoniousness of their compensation."

Superintendent Sawyer, the immediate successor of Mr. Pierce, had recently come from Massachusetts, and was acquainted with the efforts for the establishment of normal schools in that State. He anticipated the opening of such a school in Michigan at no distant period; but until that time arrived, he urged that "at least one of the branches should make teaching a regular part of its instructions." He added:

"A model school, connected with this department, would afford all the aid that a young man or woman would want to perfect him or her in the practice as well as the theory of teaching; and it is believed, that such a school might easily be kept up the whole year, in any or all the places where branches are in operation."

He evidently had in mind a school in which good teaching might be observed, rather than the more modern "practice school."

"Superintendent Comstock, who succeeded Mr. Sawyer in 1843, in one of his reports, said:

"Eligible teachers are all-important. This fact is more deeply and generally impressed on the public mind than formerly. A new science, founded on the nature of man, has been ascertained and taught. It is pedagogics, or the science of teaching. This is a distinct and most valuable science. On it the successful investigation of all other sciences depends. Its application is the art of teaching. It was once imagined that almost every man of a competent education could teach school. But to this proposition there are many exceptions. It does not follow that because a man has received a liberal education, he is therefore a lawyer or a physician. With all his attainments he can be neither till he shall have faithfully studied one of these learned professions. And, by a parity of reasoning, it is plain that an acquaintance with general literature and science does not, of necessity, prepare one for the arduous but delightful business of educting the undying mind. Such a preparation is chiefly derived from the study of the science and art of teaching. Firmly persuaded of this truth, many of the governments of the old world and some of our sister States have instituted Normal Schools, in which the science and art of teaching are elucidated and enforced. Model schools are formed and taught in these institutions. Here candidates for the office of teacher see many beneficial demonstrations in reference to classification, methods of teaching and government; and, in short, whatever is valuable within the range of human knowledge regarding this paramount interest."

Ira Mayhew became superintendent in 1845. It had be-

come evident by this time that no considerable supply of qualified teachers could be expected from the branches of the University, even if they continued to exist, as the reports for 1845 showed only thirty-six students in these schools taking the teacher's course. The time had come for effort in other directions. Mr. Mayhew had had experience of school work in New York, and had some knowledge of the gatherings of teachers in what were called institutes, and also of teachers' associations of a more general character. He made vigorous and continued efforts to secure the organization of societies for mutual improvement among teachers and other friends of educational progress. A considerable number of such societies were formed, but they accomplished comparatively little, and soon ceased to exist.

He urged also the publication of an "Educational Journal," under the control of the department of public instruction, and aided by a legislative appropriation. Superintendents Pierce and Sawyer had both made some efforts in this direction, but with no permanent results. Little could be hoped for from journals of this sort in the way of improving the qualifications of teachers in the primary schools.

Mr. Mayhew's next movement was in the direction of *Teachers' Institutes.*

The teachers' institute as a means of improving the quality of the preparation of common school teachers is now well known. In 1845, it was a new device. The first in New York was held in 1843. In his report for 1845, Mr. Mayhew advocated the holding of such institutes and suggested a liberal appropriation by the Legislature for their support. He writes: "I entertain the opinion that if the State has $25,000 to appropriate annually for the promotion of com-

mon school education, it would be productive of greater good to apply one or two thousand dollars, or even five thousand dollars, to assist in defraying the necessary expenses of maintaining teachers' institutes in the different counties, and the residue to the support of schools, than to apply the whole to the payment of unqualified teachers, or even to those of ordinary attainments."

The first institute in the State, so far as can be ascertained, was held by Superintendent Mayhew at Jackson in October of 1846, and was attended by about thirty teachers. In his report for that year he says: "It should be generally understood that the main design of the teachers' institutes is to impart professional instruction; to consider and discuss the best means of interesting and governing children in our primary schools, and the most improved and successful methods of imparting instruction in the several branches of study ordinarily pursued therein." He suggested that a series of five or six institutes be held in different parts of the State during the year 1847, expressing the opinion that they would be well attended and of great value to the schools.

For several years institutes were held in different parts of the State, the expenses being provided for by the liberality of the citizens of the localities where they were held. In the year 1855 the Legislature passed an act authorizing the State Superintendent, upon certain conditions, to appoint and hold institutes in the various counties of the State, and making an annual appropriation of eighteen hundred dollars for this purpose. The institutes were to continue in session not less than ten working days, and not more than two hundred dollars could be expended upon

any one institute. Under the provisions of this act from eight to ten institutes were usually held each year. An amendment to the law in 1861 allowed institutes to be held for five days, but reduced the amount which could be expended for any single institute to one hundred dollars. From 1862 to 1867 the average number of institutes held annually was between eleven and twelve. Under the county superintendency law, enacted in 1867, many county institutes were held in addition to the regular State institutes, of which there were annually an average of twelve up to 1867. The amount which could be drawn yearly from the State treasury for institute purposes had, to this time, remained at eighteen hundred dollars, and there were no other resources for their support.

From 1855 to 1876 inclusive, as officially reported, 219 State institutes were held, at an expense of $27,715, and with a total attendance of 19,272. This agency for improving the qualifications of teachers had done much good work during nearly a quarter of a century, but had not accomplished all that Mr. Mayhew and others had hoped for. It had reached the teachers who had most need to be improved to only a very limited extent.

The enactment of 1877, relating to "teachers institutes" changed the aspect of affairs and introduced a new and more promising era. County institute funds were created by requiring teachers to pay examination fees, male teachers one dollar annually, and female teachers fifty cents. At first an institute registration fee of fifty cents was also required of persons who had not paid an examination fee, but this was soon abandoned on account of its unfavorable influence upon the attendance.

Under the provisions of this act, the Superintendent of public instruction was required to provide for an institute annually in every organized county of the State, in which there were not less than one thousand children of school ages. Counties with a smaller number of children might be united for institute purposes.

If the institute fund of any county was not sufficient to defray the necessary expenses of the annual institute, a sum not exceeding sixty dollars, by a recent amendment not exceeding one hundred dollars, could be drawn from the State treasury for a five days' institute; provided that not more than eighteen hundred dollars could be drawn for institutes in any one year. The limit has recently been made three thousand dollars. A special State institute might also be held annually, at an expense not exceeding four hundred dollars.

The number of institutes has increased rapidly under this law; in 1880, sixty-five were held; in 1890, sixty-eight; and in 1900, eighty. The length of an institute is determined by the Superintendent, and varies from one day to twenty days. The exercises vary with the length and the immediate purpose of the institute.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

SCHOOL AT YPSILANTI.

The first State normal school in the United States was opened in Massachusetts in 1839. The New York normal school at Albany was established in 1844, and a normal school in Connecticut in 1848. Superintendents Pierce, Sawyer, and Comstock made reference to normal schools

without urging the immediate establishment of such a school. Superintendent Mayhew, in 1848, was not prepared to recommend the establishment of a normal school, believing that more could be accomplished for the preparation of teachers, at that time, by means of institutes and teachers' associations.

In 1847 Mr. Pierce, then a private citizen, advocated the organization of a normal school to be supported by funds derived from the sale of Salt Spring lands. In the same year, Governor Ransom referred with approval to the introduction of normal schools as a part of the educational system of the State.

Francis W. Shearman was appointed State Superintendent in 1849, and under his efficient administration the first Michigan State normal school was established. The original act providing for the school bears the date of March 28, 1849; a supplementary act became a law three days later. The two acts were amended and consolidated the next year, and under the provisions of the consolidated act the school was organized.

The passage of the original law was procured largely by the efforts of Hon. O. C. Comstock, former State Superintendent, who was chairman of the committee on education in the lower House of the Legislature. The act created a State Board of Education for the purpose of locating, organizing, and controlling the school.

The statute said: "The exclusive purpose of the school shall be the instruction of persons, both male and female, in the art of teaching, and in all the various branches that pertain to a good common school education. Also to give instruction in the mechanic arts, and in the arts of hus-

bandry and agricultural chemistry; in the fundamental laws of the United States, and in what regards the rights and duties of citizens." The "purpose" was broad enough to authorize the organization of a college of mechanics and agriculture with a department of civics attached. A policy based upon this clause had, for a few years, an important influence in the development of the institution.

The Board selected Ypsilanti as the location of the school in consequence of the liberal offer made by the citizens of a site for the buildings, and of $13,500 in cash for building purposes.

The main building, 55 x 100 feet and three stories in height, constructed of brick, was completed and dedicated, with appropriate exercises, on the fifth day of October, 1852.

The principal address at the dedication was made by "Father Pierce," upon the subject, "A perfect school system." Naturally enough the tone of the address indicated an exultant state of mind in the speaker. It could hardly have been otherwise. A purpose which he had most ardently cherished had been accomplished; an institution especially designed for the education and training of teachers for the common schools of the State had been established. An institute of four weeks followed the dedication; but the regular opening of the school was deferred until the Legislature should provide means for defraying the current expenses of the institution. An appropriation having been obtained for this purpose, the first term commenced on March 29, 1853, with five teachers, one of whom, however, devoted only a small portion of his time to school work. Mr. A. S. Welch was Principal; Miss A. C. Rogers, Preceptress; Mr. Orson Jackson, teacher of Mathe-

matics; Rev. J. A. Wilson, of Intellectual Philosophy; and Mr. J. M. B. Sill, of English Grammar and Elocution. The scope of this chapter does not include an extended sketch of the history of the school. Its early courses of studies were determined by educational conditions then existing in the State, and the instruction was, in the main, what would now be termed "academic." Changed conditions have produced corresponding changes in the extent and character of the studies and instruction, and the institution has aimed to keep abreast with educational progress. In 1899 an act of the Legislature changed the name of the school to "Michigan State Normal College." For several years the number of students, completing the full course and graduating, was very small in comparison with the total attendance. This resulted from the extent and nature of the single prescribed course, from the meager preparation of a majority of the pupils, and from the demand for teachers with even a very moderate professional preparation for their work. The first class of three graduated in 1854. The number of graduates during the first twenty-five years of its existence was 728, being an average of only about thirty per year. To the year 1899 the graduates had been 3347, and the yearly attendance had become something over 1000.

It was evident from the first that a single normal school, however largely attended or efficiently conducted, could do but little toward supplying the demand for qualified teachers in the common schools. Consequently efforts were made in other directions, which will be briefly referred to further on.

ADDITIONAL NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The question of additional normal schools was occasionally discussed in teachers' associations and elsewhere, but public sentiment, even among teachers, was, for several years, divided upon the question. In 1867 the State association resolved: "That we deem it of prime importance to the welfare and future progress of the primary schools of the State that there be another normal school established, at an early period, in the western or northwestern portion of the State." At a meeting of superintendents and principals of union schools, in the following year, the expression of opinion was practically unanimous in favor of establishing more normal schools, as soon as possible. Similar expressions occurred in most of the subsequent annual meetings of the State association, but no concerted action was taken.

In his report for 1891, the Superintendent of public instruction took strong ground in favor of providing for at least one additional normal school, to be located where it would accommodate the people of the Upper Peninsula. This recommendation did not produce immediate effect, but served to give direction to public opinions and to prepare the way for legislative action.

CENTRAL STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT MT. PLEASANT.

In 1891, under the leadership of Professor C. F. R. Bellows, for many years connected with the normal school at Ypsilanti, the citizens of Mt. Pleasant formed an association and established a normal school. In 1895 they offered to donate the buildings and grounds to the State, on condition

that the institution should be adopted and supported as a State normal school. This generous offer was accepted and the school became the property of the State. The legislative act accepting the school and providing for its management, declared its purpose to be, "the preparation and training of persons for teaching in the several district schools and in the primary departments of the graded schools of the State," and placed it under the control of the State board of education. The school is doing most excellent service in carrying out the purpose for which it was created. In 1901 its graduating class numbered 100, and its attendance 400.

THE NORTHERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT MARQUETTE.

A third school, known as the "Northern State Normal School," was established at Marquette in the Upper Peninsula, in 1899, "for the purpose of instructing persons in the several branches pertaining to a public school education, and in the science and art of teaching the same." The site for the school was donated by citizens of Marquette, and other valuable gifts have been received from the same source. The attendance during the school year 1900-1901 was 198, and twenty-five students completed the course for high school graduates.

SYSTEM OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The establishment of the Central and Northern normal schools led the Board of Education to adopt a plan for unifying the normal school work of the State, and to prevent any undue rivalry between the different schools. The plan

provides for an officer with the official title of "President of the Michigan system of Normal Schools." This officer has the general supervising control of the schools, with power, subject to the approval of the Board of Education and with the advice and counsel of the Principals of the several Schools, to prescribe courses of instruction, and to recommend persons for appointment as teachers and to dismiss or remove teachers for any reasonable cause. Each school has a principal who performs the usual duties of such an officer in the absence of the President and coöperates with the President as previously stated. The Board of Education is required by law "to maintain substantial uniformity and reciprocity in the courses of study" in the different schools so that students can pass from one school to another without loss of time, or standing in studies. The provisions relating to graduation, diplomas, certificates, and degrees are described under the appropriate heading.

OTHER AGENCIES FOR THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS.

More than forty years elapsed after the dedication of the first normal school building in 1852 before another State normal school was established. During this period numerous plans were proposed and advocated for securing additional facilities for the instruction and training of teachers. The number of institutes was increased and their character improved; associations of teachers were organized, and educational periodicals and papers were published and circulated. But the feeling was general that all these means were insufficient, and were only temporary make-shifts. The demand was for something better and more permanent.

TEACHERS' CLASSES IN UNION SCHOOLS.

Superintendent Mayhew had advocated the organization of union schools, giving as one reason that they would serve, to a considerable extent, as substitutes for normal schools. In 1859 Superintendent Gregory, after admitting that "it would be futile to attempt to supply all our schools with qualified teachers by means of normal schools," stated that many of the union schools and some of the colleges "had organized teachers' classes, and that some hundreds of teachers are annually sent forth from these classes to give instruction in the public schools of the State." He recommended the encouragement of this work; suggested that the members of such classes be examined and certificated by State authority; and that a fund be created by the sale of swamp lands, or from some other source, the income of which should be "distributed annually to those institutions which should establish normal or teachers' classes, in proportion to the number of pupils who should pass satisfactorily the annual examinations." In his report for 1860, Mr. Gregory recommended that the Superintendent of public instruction, with the advice and consent of the Board of Education, be authorized to select such institutions as may be suitably located and otherwise adapted to the service, not exceeding one for each county, and prescribe a course of normal training and instruction for the teachers' classes to be taught therein." The selected schools were to receive compensation for the service rendered to the State in this way. An appropriation of $3,000, was recommended for use during the next two years. The Board of Education addressed a memorial to the Legislature fully endorsing the recommendation of the Superintendent, and asking an

appropriation from the income of the swamp land fund. Mr. Gregory continued his efforts in this direction during the entire six years of his superintendency, going so far as to prepare an outline course of study for teachers' classes. It is hardly necessary to add that he failed to secure the desired legislation. His efforts, however, were not without results. For several years teachers' classes were kept up, during a part of the year, in many of the leading high schools. Superintendent Hosford, the immediate successor of Mr. Gregory, pursued the same policy as his predecessor, and with equal lack of success so far as legislation was concerned. At a later period several of the larger cities established normal training schools to prepare teachers for their own schools; but these are local institutions having no organic connections with the State system. While the plan so earnestly advocated by Superintendent Gregory was never adopted by the State, the high schools have done most excellent service in raising the standard of qualifications for teachers, and also in the preparation of teachers for the district schools in their immediate neighborhoods.

THE SCIENCE AND ART OF TEACHING IN THE UNIVERSITY.

While the history of higher education is outside the province of this work, it will be germane to our purpose to make a brief statement of the services rendered by the University and the Colleges for the direct purpose of improving the primary and secondary schools. The relations of the University to the high schools and its influence in their development have been noticed in another connection. These relations necessarily, though indirectly, affected the

character and qualifications of the teachers in these schools. A more direct and intimate relation with the teaching force seemed possible and desirable,—a relation which should help to give a more complete unity to the educational system of the State as a whole. The establishment of a department or chair of pedagogy in the University was a subject of frequent discussion among teachers and others for several years before any official action was taken in that direction by the authorities of the University. Some tentative experiments were made. During the year 1860 State Superintendent John M. Gregory gave a course of lectures before some of the classes upon practical problems of education which were received with much favor. In his report for 1873 Superintendent D. B. Briggs recommended the establishment of an educational department, and repeated his recommendation in the following year.

President Angell, in his report for the same year, referred to the subject with approval, and stated that the Faculty had decided "to offer to the members of the graduating class who should, by special examinations, show special fitness for teaching certain branches, a 'Teacher's diploma,' signed by the President and the Professor in charge of the studies pursued." This appears to have been the first official action of the University authorities upon the subject. The proposed diploma had no legal significance, but was, nevertheless, of much value to persons seeking positions as teachers of special studies.

In his report for 1878 the President suggested the appointment of a non-resident lecturer upon Pedagogics for a part of the year to test the value of such instruction in the University. Instead of adopting this suggestion, the Board

of Regents, in June of the next year, established a department or chair of "The Science and Art of Teaching." The aim of the Regents in establishing the department was stated to be: (1) To fit University students for the higher positions in the public school service; (2) To secure to teaching the rights, prerogatives, and advantages of a profession; (3) To give a more perfect unity to our State educational system, by bringing the secondary schools into closer relation with the University."

Some tentative efforts had been previously made in two or three institutions of higher learning in other States, but no permanent departments or chairs had been established. In referring to this action of the Board of Regents, the United States Commissioner of Education in his report for 1889-90 said: "It was not until 1879 that a definite step was taken in the way of recognizing pedagogy as a science and also of recognizing the necessity of training teachers for schools above the elementary grade. In that year the University of Michigan established a chair which took the expressive name of the 'Science and Art of Teaching.'"

The work of the department has been ably performed and has been of great service to secondary education in the State. The University has been peculiarly fortunate in the two men who have thus far filled the chair. Dr. W. H. Payne was appointed in 1879, when the chair was established, and served until 1887, when he resigned to accept the charge of an important educational institution in Nashville, Tennessee. Dr. B. A. Hinsdale filled the chair from 1887 until his death in November, 1900, when Dr. Payne was recalled to the position.

TEACHERS' COURSES IN THE COLLEGES.

As previously stated, teachers' classes were organized in most of the denominational Colleges of the State at an early period. The courses of instruction for these classes were of varying degrees of excellency, but were generally such as to be of essential advantage to the students intending to teach, and consequently to the public schools of the State. Gradually the courses were made more extended and more systematic; and the feeling became very strong among the teachers in these institutions and among their supporters and patrons, that the pedagogical work done in them should be recognized, in some appropriate way by the State.

As a result in 1893, the Legislature passed an act, authorizing the Board of Education to grant teachers' certificates, (the character of which will be explained in another place) to graduates of those colleges which, in addition to the regular four years' course, provided a course of study in the science and art of teaching satisfactory to the Board. Colleges complying with the conditions prescribed, became an integral part of the State system of public instruction so far as the teachers' departments are concerned. Graduates of the Colleges are rendering important service to the Commonwealth, chiefly in the schools of secondary instruction.

SUMMARY OF THE FACILITIES FOR THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR THE PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

1. The system of teachers' institutes.
2. The Normal college at Ypsilanti.
3. The normal schools at Mount Pleasant and Marquette.

4. Department of the science and art of teaching in the University.

5. Teachers' Courses in the colleges.

It will be seen that the facilities for the preparation of teachers for the *secondary* schools are ample. It is only for the primary schools that any additional facilities of any kind are needed.

CHAPTER XII.

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS AND SUPERVISION OF SCHOOLS.

TOWNSHIP SCHOOL INSPECTORS.

Under the provisions of the first School law of the State the township School inspectors were the examining and supervising board of the township. They were required to examine all persons proposing to teach in the public Schools "in regard to moral character, learning, and ability to teach School," and to give certificates, valid for one year, to those who passed a satisfactory examination. The Superintendent of public instruction prescribed the form of the certificates which were all of one grade. The branches of study, in which examinations were to be made were not indicated at first. An early amendment of the statute made the certificates valid for two years, and forbade the granting of a certificate to any person who did not possess "a thorough and accurate knowledge of the several branches of study usually taught in primary schools." By implication this determined the extent of the examination.

The law also directed that some member of the board of inspectors should visit each school in the township, at least once in each school year, who should "inquire into the condition of the school, examine the scholars, and give such advice to both teachers and pupils as he deemed necessary or beneficial." An amendment to the law in 1859 allowed the inspectors, in their discretion, to grant certificates "for a

term of not less than six months nor more than two years." This was the first movement towards grading certificates. No change has been made touching the studies in which examinations should be required, but the organization of graded schools, in which higher branches were taught, led the State Superintendent to append a note to the law saying: "Whenever the applicant proposes to teach in the higher departments of a graded school, or in any advanced primary school, he should be examined in the branches he will be expected to teach."

Until the passage of the act creating the office of County Superintendent in 1867, all examinations of teachers of all grades, and all supervision of the common schools were made by the township boards of school inspectors. In 1857 the graduates of the normal school had been relieved from the necessity of an examination, but the graduates of the University, if they desired to teach in the public schools, had to submit to an examination by the inspectors. This system of certification and supervision continued for thirty years. Of its general character Superintendent Hosford, in his report for 1866, wrote: "The examination, as conducted in a multitude of instances, is simply a form; or, perhaps, to say that it is a mere farce, would be saying what is more nearly the truth, and not unfrequently are certificates given without even the form of an examination. The present system of examining teachers, so far as the securing of competent instructors by it is concerned, is a complete failure, and the system of school supervision, so far as the improvement of the schools by it is concerned, is equally a failure."

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

The lack of any efficient supervision of the schools was recognized from the very first organization of the system, and efforts were begun at an early period to secure improvement in that direction. The initiative in the struggle to obtain a county or legislative district superintendency, similar to that of New York, was taken by the State teachers' association in 1855, by the appointment of Professors Gregory, Welch, and Boise a committee to prepare a memorial or petititon to the Legislature, praying for the establishment of such a system. At the next meeting of the association the committee reported progress, and was continued with the addition of two members. This committee visited Lansing during the session of the Legislature, consulted with leading members of that body, who were favorable to the measure, but, in view of the general sentiment then existing, deemed it inexpedient to attempt anything further at that time. Subsequently a carefully prepared circular, setting forth the defects of the existing system and the advantages of the county system, was issued and extensively distributed throughout the State. The association continued its efforts until they were finally crowned with success.

The department of public instruction coöperated with the teachers' association, and at some periods, gave direction to its movements. Superintendent Mayhew, in 1855, recommended a school commissioner in each senatorial district of the State who should examine the teachers and supervise the schools of his district. In his report for 1860, Superintendent Gregory urgently advocated the county Superintendency, suggesting that the Superintendent should

be elected, for a term of two years, by the township school inspectors. He deprecated his election by popular vote, since this would bring the office into the region of politics, and he insisted that no one should be eligible to the superintendency except "a man of competent learning and of practical skill and experience in the art of teaching." As a further safeguard he might be commissioned by the State Superintendent and be subject to removal by that officer for sufficient cause. Superintendent Hosford, in his report for 1866, made an extended argument for the county superintendency, based chiefly upon the results of the system in other States.

By this time public sentiment had become thoroughly aroused upon the subject, and the Legislature of 1867, by an unexpectedly large majority, enacted a law establishing the county system. At its next meeting the State association resolved: "that we hail the county superintendency; we recognize in it a most important step toward the elevation of the primary school to a higher and more powerful place in the moralizing and Christianizing influences of the day."

This resolution expressed the general feeling of the teachers of the State and of other friends of educational progress. The law provided for the election of the Superintendents, for a term of two years, by vote of the people at the April township meetings. The men chosen at the first election were, as a whole, a choice body. Many of them had allowed themselves to be nominated and elected, not because they desired the position, but for the reason that they were greatly interested in the success of the system. Among them were Hon. John D. Pierce, the first Superin-

tendent of public instruction in the State; Professor D. B. Briggs, subsequently elected State Superintendent; C. F. R. Bellows, H. C. Ford, W. S. Perry, J. M. Ballou, D. Putnam, and others of equal worth.

The compensation of the county Superintendent within minimum and maximum limits fixed by the statute, was determined by the county boards of supervisions. The examination and certification of teachers were placed in the hands of the superintendents, except in counties with ten or a less number of districts; for such counties the township inspectors continued in authority as before. Three grades of certificates, of such form as the State Superintendent prescribed, were provided for; the first grade was valid for two years; the second, for one year; both good throughout the county. The third was valid for only six months and in a specified township. Examinations were to be held in each township at least once a year. The extent of the examination was left to the discretion of the examiner, with only the provision that it must include orthography, reading, writing, grammar, geography, and arithmetic.

The superintendent was to visit each school in the county at least once in the year, examine into the modes of instruction and discipline, counsel with teachers and school officers, inquire into the condition of school houses, of district and township libraries, and promote the improvement of the schools by public lectures, teachers' institutes, and all other available means.

Under the workings of this system great improvements in the schools of many of the counties were made, and the association of county superintendents did good service to education generally in the State. Gradually some serious

defects in the law manifested themselves, and various causes conspired to produce dissatisfaction with the system, and to create a demand for a change.

TOWNSHIP SUPERINTENDENTS.

In 1875 the Legislature repealed the county superintendency law and substituted a system of township superintendents, differing only a little from the discarded and worthless plan of township inspectors. The township superintendent, in reality, took the place of one of the school inspectors and held office for one year only. He examined teachers, granted certificates, and was directed to visit all the schools in the township at least twice in the year. Many of the provisions of the county superintendency law were retained, the township officer being substituted for the county officer. The examinations were nominally the same, the certificates were essentially of the same grades, and the supervisory duties were scarcely changed.

The State Superintendent sent out a circular to the newly created Superintendents, carefully explaining the provisions of the law and the duties which it imposed. The general fitness of these officers for their duties, may be inferred from the fact that only 272 out of 915 complied with the request of the Superintendent for a report of the work done by them during the first period of their service. As might have been anticipated, in most of the counties, the character of the teachers and the schools suffered severely under the new system, and public sentiment soon began to demand a change of some sort. A return to the old county superintendency did not appear desirable, without some radical improvements in several directions. Experience had done

some wholesome and effective teaching to both the advocates and opponents of the county system. A new law would embody the results of the lessons learned. It was certain at least that a board of examiners would be substituted for a single examiner.

COUNTY EXAMINERS—TOWNSHIP SUPERVISION.

A new law, enacted in 1881, attempted to combine county examinations with township supervision, nearly in accordance with a plan recommended by Superintendent Gower in his report for 1880. "The true system of local supervision," he said, "must include the district board, the township inspectors, the county officer, or officers, and the State department, inter-dependent, mutually responsible, and working with perfect harmony and mutual respect." The law provided for a county board of three examiners, elected by the chairmen of the boards of school inspectors, after the first election, for a term of three years. This county board elected one of its members as Secretary, who was the executive officer of the board. This board examined the teachers of the county and gave three grades of certificates, the first grade valid for three years; the second, for two years; the third, for one year, throughout the county. A special certificate, valid for a very limited time in a specified district, could be granted by the Secretary. The Secretary was required to visit any school in the county when notified by the chairman of a township board of inspectors that such school was in need of special attention. This was the extent of the supervision exercised by the county examiners.

The chairman of the board of school inspectors was made supervisor of the schools of his township with the ordinary

duties and powers pertaining to that position. Probably the law was the best which could have been secured at that time, while the prejudice against the previous county superintendency system was still strong in the minds of many members of the Legislature. The result, however, was what might have been anticipated; township supervision proved to be "a mere farce in a large percentage of the townships of the State," to borrow the truthful language of one of the county secretaries.

PROVISION FOR COUNTY SUPERVISION.

In 1887 the law was revised and amended, the product being an improved but complicated and, in some features, an undesirable system. Two county examiners were chosen, for a term of two years, by the chairmen of the township boards of inspectors. These two, with the judge of probate, appointed and employed a Secretary, for the term of one year, who became ex-officio a member of the county board and its executive officer. The Secretary examined candidates for positions as teachers, and the other members of the board acted with him in granting ecrtificates. As before, certificates were of three grades, the first being made valid throughout the State. Examination questions were to be furnished by the Superintendent of public instruction. Under the previous law, "the theory and art of teaching, history of the United States, and civil government" had been added to the studies in which examination must be made. By the present act, "physiology and hygiene with particular reference to the effects of alcoholic drinks, stimulants, and narcotics upon the human system," were added. The Secretary was required to visit each school in the

county at least once in the year, and to perform all the usual duties of a supervising officer. The chairman of the board of inspectors still continued to have nominal "Supervisory charge" of the schools of his township subject to the advice and direction of the Secretary. In counties having more schools than the Secretary could visit personally, he was authorized, with the approval of the other members of the board, to employ "assistant visitors" for a strictly limited period in the year. This law, like the one which it superseded, proved unsatisfactory, although it resulted, in many counties, in producing considerable improvement in the schools.

COUNTY COMMISSIONER OF SCHOOLS.

In the year 1891 an act was passed providing for County Commissioners of schools and two county examiners. These three constituted a county board for the examination of teachers. The commissioner is a county superintendent with a different title, and is charged with the duty of supervising the schools of the county, with authority, within certain limits, to appoint assistant visitors where these are needed. This law, since amended in several particulars, especially in respect to the qualifications of the members of the board and the length of the term of office, still remains in force; and it will be sufficient to give a brief outline of its provisions at this time (1901) without considering in detail its successive amendments and improvements.

The county commissioner is chosen by the people at the election on the first Monday in April, at present for a term of two years, in 1903 and thereafter, for four years. To be eligible to the office of commissioner a person must have

had an experience of twelve months as a teacher in the public schools of the State, must be a graduate of the literary department of some reputable college, university, or State normal school having a course of at least three years, or hold a State teacher's certificate, or be the holder of a first grade certificate; but this last certificate only qualifies the holder in the county where it is granted. In counties having less than fifty districts a second grade certificate qualifies.

The two school examiners are elected by the county board of supervisors for a term of two years. Any person is eligible to the office of examiner who has the qualifications required for a commissioner, or has taught in the public schools nine months and holds, or has held within three years, a second grade certificate.

Three grades of certificates are granted, subject to such rules as the Superintendent of public instruction may prescribe. The first grade is valid for four years, and is good throughout the State when endorsed by the State Superintendent, but can be granted only to persons who have taught at least one year with ability and success. The second grade is valid throughout the county for three years, but can be granted only to those who have taught at least seven months. Certificates of the third grade are of two classes, known as A and B. Certificates of class A entitle the holder to teach in primary departments of graded schools only; those of class B entitle the holder to teach in any school in the county for one year, but only three certificates of this class can be granted to the same person. The commissioner can grant a special certificate entitling a person to teach in a specified district till the next public exam-

ination, but only one such certificate can be given to the same person. No certificate can be granted to a person over twenty-one years of age who is not a citizen of the United States.

The studies in which examinations for the lowest grade of certificate must be made are "orthography, reading, writing, grammar, geography, arithmetic, theory and art of teaching, United States history, civil government, and physiology and hygiene with reference to the effect of alcoholic drinks, stimulants and narcotics upon the human system." Persons receiving certificates must have attained the age of eighteen years under the present law. Under the last previous law the age was seventeen, earlier it was sixteen, and earlier still no age limit was prescribed.

All questions for examination are prepared and furnished by the State Superintendent: and that officer determines, usually after consultation with the county examiners, in what studies candidates for second and first grade certificates shall be examined.

Certificates may be renewed without examination under certain circumstances, and the examiners in one county may accept examination papers written in another county and treat them as if written before themselves. An applicant for a first grade certificate, who is dissatisfied with the decision of the county examiners, may appeal to the Superintendent of public instruction.

OTHER AUTHORITIES GRANTING LEGAL CERTIFICATES

THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

From 1867 to 1875 the Superintendent of public instruction was empowered to grant certificates, on any evidence

satisfactory to him, licensing the holders to teach in any of the primary or graded schools of the State, the certificates being valid till revoked by the Superintendent. About 150 certificates were granted under this law, but the very indefinite provisions of the act unavoidably opened the way for dissatisfaction and suspicion of favoritism. It was, however, especially during the period of the township superintendency, generally felt that there should be some State officer, or officers, authorized to make examination and grant certificates. This feeling led to the enactment of a law in 1879, giving the State Board of Education power, after "a thorough and critical examination," to grant certificates, valid for a term of ten years, to persons found to possess eminent scholarship and professional ability" and good moral character. The board still retains this authority, the original act having been only slightly modified. The certificates now granted are valid for life unless revoked by the Board. No certificate can be granted except upon the prescribed examination. The Board also has authority, in its discretion, "to endorse State teachers' certificates or normal school diplomas granted in other States." The Board controls the granting of other certificates as will be noticed later on.

NORMAL SCHOOL DIPLOMAS AND CERTIFICATES.

The act establishing the normal school at Ypsilanti contained this provision: "So soon as any person has attended said institution twenty-two weeks, said person may be examined in the studies required by the Board, in such manner as may be prescribed, and if it appear that said person possesses the learning and other qualifications necessary to

teach a good common school, said person shall receive a certificate to that effect from the Principal, to be approved by the Superintendent of public instruction." It seems probable that the intention of this clause of the statute was to make the certificate granted a legal license to teach; but the word legal was not used, and the township inspectors insisted that the holders of such certificates should submit to an examination by them. In accordance with a recommendation of the State Superintendent, the Legislature in 1857 passed an act authorizing the board of instruction of the school to grant to graduates a diploma which, when signed by the Board of Education, would be evidence of the completion of the course of study. This diploma was not itself a legal certificate; but was to be accompanied by a certificate, signed by the board of instruction, which served as a legal license to teach in any of the primary schools of the State until revoked by some proper authority. It will be observed that the certificate was granted by the Faculty of the school and not by the Board of Education. This continued to be the case until 1889. Since that date the certificates as well as the diplomas, are given by the Board of Education. At the present time certificates of two grades, good throughout the State, are granted at the college at Ypsilanti and at the school in Marquette, one valid for five years, the other for life. At the central normal at Mt. Pleasant certificates of two grades are granted, valid for a limited period, and renewable for the same length of time. Probably the certificates from this school will be made uniform with the others at an early day.

CERTIFICATES FROM THE COLLEGES.

In 1893 a legislative act was passed empowering the Board of Education to grant certificates, without examination, to graduates of such colleges of the State as should comply with certain prescribed conditions in respect to courses of study and instruction. If the graduates have already had three years of successful experience in the schools of the State, the certificate is valid for life. Graduates without previous experience receive certificates valid for four years. At the expiration of that time, if they have taught successfully, they may receive life certificates.

CERTIFICATES FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

In 1891 authority was granted by the Legislature, to the Faculty of the department of Literature, Science, and the Arts of the University, to give a legal certificate of qualification to teach in any of the schools of the State, "to every person receiving a bachelor's, master's or doctor's degree, and also a teacher's diploma for work done in the science and art of teaching from said University."

CERTIFICATES IN SOME CITIES.

"In incorporated cities employing a principal of the high school and also a superintendent of schools, who gives not less than one-half of his time to school supervision, the superintendent of schools and the Board of Education, or a committee thereof, shall be empowered to examine their teachers and grant certificates" to them in such form as the Superintendent of public instruction shall prescribe.

Cities having a thoroughly equipped normal training school are exempt from these provisions in relation to the examination of teachers. Such certificates are valid only in the city in which they were given.

KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS, AND TEACHERS OF MUSIC AND DRAWING.

By an act passed in 1901, "graduates of any kindergarten training school, endorsed by the Superintendent of public instruction, who hold, also, a teacher's certificate or diploma from a reputable college of the State, or a high school having a four years' high school course, are legally qualified kindergarten teachers."

"Any person who has finished a course of at least two years in music in the University of Michigan, or in any of the State normal schools, or in any college incorporated under the general laws of the State, and any person who has finished a course of at least one year in drawing in any of the aforesaid institutions, or in any other institution, whose course of study is acceptable to the Superintendent of public instruction, and holds in either case a statement from the proper authorities of the institution certifying to that fact, is a legally qualified teacher in music or in drawing."

CHAPTER XIII.

ABOUT TEXT-BOOKS.

The first school law of the State gave no authority to any school official to prescribe the books which might be used in the schools. Parents furnished their children with such books as they happened to have or could most easily procure. The result of this freedom can be easily understood. The reports of Superintendent Pierce and of his immediate successor, Mr. Sawyer, showed that about thirty different books were in use for reading purposes. At the head of this list was the old English reader, with the New Testament as second and the Juvenile reader third. Fifteen works on arithmetic were named, with Daboll, Adams, and Smith in the lead. Ten geographies appeared, with Olney as first. The long list of grammars was headed by Kirkham. Mr. Sawyer, in commenting upon the condition of affairs, said, "If a general uniformity cannot be brought about, it is suggested whether the plan in some States, of authorizing the town committees, (or inspectors with us) to prescribe the books to be used in their own limits, might not be adopted." The early State reports make it evident that the evil of a multiplicity of text-books is a very old one, and that it has not been easy to find and apply an efficient remedy.

In 1839 the Legislature made it the duty of the State Superintendent to report, "What provision, in his opinion, could or ought to be made by law, to insure a regular and

sufficient supply of text-books to every school district on the most economical terms, or what other provision, if any, should, in his opinion, be made to secure uniformity, as near as may be, in the books to be used in primary schools."

This act was probably passed in consequence of a petition praying the Legislature "to provide by law for a better supply, as well as a greater uniformity, of school books." The plan proposed by the petitioners is historically interesting, as foreshadowing some of more recent date. The superintendent of public instruction was to be authorized and directed to purchase annually, at his discretion, legally approved books and stationery equal to the probable wants of the schools and the district libraries, and establish a central depository from which distribution should be made to the treasurer of each county, who should be the keeper of a depository for the county. The county treasurer was to appoint some person in each township to keep a township depository of school books. Books were to be sold to residents of Michigan at uniform prices fixed by the Superintendent. The Superintendent was to use such portion of the principal of the primary school fund as might be necessary to put the plan into operation.

Mr. Pierce did not explicitly recommend this or any other plan, but simply said in his report: "Could some plan of this nature be put into successful operation, it would doubtless contribute to the public advantage. As it now is, the districts, in most cases, are obliged to rely upon the merchants for supply. This supply is often irregular—many of the books purchased are of the most inferior description—and frequently sold at high prices—some purchase one kind, some another; and this introduces confusion

of books into many of our schools. But whether any system like that proposed can be safely attempted, is for the Legislature in its wisdom to determine." Evidently the Superintendent had little faith in the practicability of the scheme, and the Legislature appears to have given it no serious consideration.

One of the first legislative acts, looking towards a possible uniformity of text-books, was a provision of law making it the duty of the State Superintendent to prepare and recommend lists of books suitable for use in the schools, and also for district libraries. The schools, however, were not required to use these books, and the recommendations produced apparently no appreciable effect. The lists were appended to the annual reports in some years, and were also appended, for some time, to the successive editions of the school laws.

One of the most extended and carefully prepared lists was published in 1858 by Superintendent Mayhew. In his explanatory introduction to this list, he states that it had been made up after consultation with many competent teachers, and that no books were included which had not received their cordial approval. After adverting to the evils springing from a lack of uniformity, he went on to say: "It is not necessary to the removal of the difficulty, that the same series of books should be used throughout the State. This indeed would be impracticable, if desirable. It might be well, however, for all the schools of a township to use a uniform series of books; and especially is it essential that a uniform series be used in every school district." For the purpose of securing uniformity, he recommended that the County educational society, where such a society existed,

should, through a judicious committee, select and recommend a series of books for use in the schools of the county. If there were no county society, the work might be done for a township by the township society. If this was not practicable, he advised that uniformity be attempted by the united action of the several districts in a township, or of a number of contiguous districts, through committees. This plan proved of no practical value, but is of historical interest as showing one of the many methods suggested for securing uniformity, and solving a most difficult problem by voluntary action, without the peremptory mandate of law. The revised act of 1857 for the organization and management of graded schools empowered the trustees of such districts to prescribe courses of studies and text-books. This was generally done in the larger schools. An amendment to the general school law, made about the same time, authorized and directed the district boards "to prescribe a uniform list of text-books to be used in their schools." No specific penalty was attached to a failure to comply with this provision of the law, and it remained practically a dead letter in most districts, the board being indisposed to disturb the good feeling of the neighborhood by requiring a change of text-books in order to secure uniformity.

Attached to an edition of the school law, issued in 1859, was a list of text-books, prepared with much care by Superintendent Gregory. In some introductory remarks he said: "The use of the books recommended by the superintendent is not obligatory upon the district, the right to prescribe authoritatively the text-books being vested in the district board." A few of the books on the list are named here to recall some of the popular text-books of sixty years ago.

Daboll, Kirkham, Olney, and the English reader had disappeared. In their places were recommended Stoddard's, Davies' and Colburn's arithmetics; Welch's, Sill's and Green's grammars; Cornell's, Montieth's and McNally's, and Warren's geographies; Webb's and Sander's readers; and Willson's and Goodrich's histories. Town and Holbrook's speller was the favorite.

Ten years later, after the county superintendency had been established, Superintendent Hosford wrote: "The great diversity of text-books still exist, and the evil is as strongly felt as in past years. Many of the superintendents have endeavored to secure uniformity in their respective counties. The effort has not been entirely unavailing." He regarded the positive and diverse opinions and preferences of teachers as one of the most serious obstacles in the way of securing uniformity. Individual preference, he declared, should be disregarded. In his report for 1877, Superintendent Tarbell published an extended table showing the text-books used in the different departments of the graded schools, and also showing the condition of affairs in the rural schools by extracts from the reports of the township Superintendents, the township system of supervision having been reëstablished. It was almost universally agreed that the diversity of text-books was one of the most serious hindrances to progress in the schools. Mr. Tarbell discussed somewhat fully the causes of the existing conditions in the country schools, and asked, "What shall be done about it?" He called attention to the fact that the law was precisely the same, in this matter, for the graded and the ungraded schools, and yet the graded schools generally had uniformity while the ungraded did not. His explanation of this was

very simple, brief, and correct. He said: "The graded school boards dare, and the district school boards dare not comply with the law. In the latter case the board being but few in numbers, being the neighbors, and desirous of being the friends of those affected by their action, they shrink from doing their duty as officers, lest it should affect their relations as men; for some, perhaps most, will almost inevitably be displeased at their action." But, to prevent woful waste of money and effort, *some* uniformity must be had. What shall it be? State, county, township, district?" A State system of uniformity, he declared, was a most dazzling scheme. A national uniformity would be more brilliant still.

In respect to a State system of uniformity Mr. Tarbell said: "Its difficulties lie in the centralization of undue power in the hands of a few, the great liability to bribery and the certain charges of it, the extent of change inevitable, its inequality, some books being selected which are extensively used in certain parts of the State and very little elsewhere, the difficulty of selecting books adapted to the wants of all. As Superintendent of public instruction I should not wish a committee to select books for the State to be constituted without including myself, nor should I dare for the sake of my good name to act on such a committee."

"County uniformity presents these difficulties to a less extent than State uniformity, but by no means escapes them. The experience of other States is by no means assuring to the advocates of county uniformity. The extent of the moneyed interests involved lead to bitter strife, and after all to a plentiful lack of the uniformity sought. Berrien county

tried county uniformity two years with results well known."

He favored township uniformity, as on the whole the most practicable, and open to the fewest objections and dangers, and suggested a plan for securing this; but made the following recommendation to bring about district uniformity, and at the same time reduce the cost of books:

"The plan of 'free text-books' is the best solution of the difficulty arising from expensiveness of school books with which I am conversant. I recommend the passage of a law allowing the tax-paying voters of each district to determine, at the annual meeting, whether the district board shall furnish school books at the expense of the district to all pupils in attendance at the school during the coming year, the books to be the property of the district and loaned to the pupils under suitable restrictions." He stated that several States had a law of this kind which was reported to give general satisfaction. No immediate results followed from Mr. Tarbell's arguments and recommendations.

In the report of 1883 Superintendent Gass treated the same subject quite extensively, presenting the conclusions reached by experiments in several other States in respect to State uniformity. The consensus of opinion was adverse to such uniformity for what appeared to be cogent reasons. The conclusion of Mr. Gass was that township uniformity was the most feasible and most likely to prove satisfactory and successful. He strongly favored, however, the passage of a law allowing districts to furnish text-books free. A table included in his report showed the names and number of different text-books in orthography, reading, arithmetic, grammar, geography, and history of the United States used in nine counties in the State. The books in orthography

were nine; in reading, fifteen; in arithmetic, five; in grammar, nine; in geography, seven; and in history, eight. Harrington's orthography, Harper's readers, Harper's and Robinson's arithmetics, Swinton's grammar, Harper's geography, and Scott's history were more extensively used than any others. The table made evident the fruitful industry of the "book agent."

In 1883 an amendment was made to the school law, providing for the instruction of "all pupils in every school in physiology and hygiene, with special reference to the effects of alcoholic drinks, stimulants, and narcotics generally, upon the human system." This provision was amended in 1887 so as to require "such instruction to be given by the aid of text-books in the case of pupils who are able to read, and as thoroughly as in other studies pursued in the same school. The text-books to be used for such instruction shall give at least one-fourth of their space to the consideration of the nature and effects of alcoholic drinks and narcotics, and the books used in the highest grade of graded schools shall contain at least twenty pages of matter relating to this subject."

Text-books upon this subject must be examined and approved by the State board of education before school officers can introduce them into the schools, and only books so approved can be lawfully introduced and used. At first the State board of health was required to join with the board of education in the examination and approval, but this requirement was omitted in the later editions of the school laws.

At a meeting in 1884 the county examiners devised and discussed a somewhat elaborate plan for securing voluntary

county uniformity, and voted to urge the Legislature to provide for such uniformity by law.

By a special act of the Legislature, passed in 1885, the board of education of East Saginaw was given authority to purchase text-books and all necessary supplies for all pupils attending the public schools in that city. A report of the city Superintendent a year and a half after the law went into effect, spoke very favorably of the result of the experiment, which was the first made in the State.

The influence of the Saginaw experiment and the pressure from various quarters, induced the Legislature, in 1889, to enact a law permitting any school district to provide free text-books for its school, and requiring the voters of every district, except those organized under special charters, to vote upon the question at the first annual meeting after the passage of the law. It is not necessary here to note the detailed provisions of this act.

At the first annual meeting a considerable number of districts voted for free text-books, more in the newer than in the older counties, but in many districts the school officers failed to comply with the provisions of the law and no vote was taken. While districts organized under special charters are exempt from the provisions of this general law, they may act under it if a majority of the voters decide to do so.

Books may be furnished free in the following subjects: Orthography, spelling, writing, reading, geography, arithmetic, grammar (including language lessons), National and State history, civil government, and physiology and hygiene. Books once adopted cannot be changed within five years, and all books upon any one subject must be uniform. The vexed question of uniformity is thus settled in all districts having

free text-books. The effect of this free text-book act is stated as follows by Superintendent Hammond in his report for 1898: "Up to the close of the public schools, June 30, 1898, 359 common districts including villages, 46 entire townships under the township unit system, and 7 cities had taken advantage of the provisions of the law and were supplying text-books free to pupils. These numbers seem small when it is remembered that the law has been in effect eight years, and that there are in Michigan 7,262 school districts, including 111 township unit districts and 77 cities."

In the report, from which the above is quoted, Mr. Hammond presented an extended and thorough discussion of "Text-book Legislation," which was also issued and circulated in pamphlet form. The reader who desires to become more fully acquainted with the subject, is referred to this document.

An act to establish a State uniformity of text-books was passed by the Legislature in 1897. This statute was extended and elaborate, but was not to go into effect until the year 1899. Public sentiment against this law became so manifest and vigorous that it was repealed at the next session of the Legislature, before it went fully into effect; and the previous act for free and uniform text-books, by voluntary district action, remains in force.

The general result under the law thus far, summed up by Superintendent Hammond, in the report of 1900, is as follows: "The free text-book plan has been thoroughly tried in Michigan, and under the law of 1889, 38 per cent of all the pupils enrolled in our public schools are furnished with text-books free. Fifteen of our largest cities furnish free text-books to all of the first eight grades, and the City of

Muskegon furnish them to the sixth grade inclusive. Many country schools also furnish them. Wexford county has 40 free text-book districts; Missaukee, 38; Saginaw, 37; Bay, 25; Menominee, 24; Osceola, 23, Kalkaska, 22. In the entire State there are 671 districts, in which were enrolled last year 56,779 children. More than double that number, or 134,616, are supplied with text-books in the 16 free text-book cities in the State. This law should be amended so that the question of furnishing free text-books may be raised by a tax-payer at any annual meeting. It should also be recast, and some bungling and ambiguous sentences corrected or removed. With these slight changes, our laws are good enough and should not be disturbed by the Legislature."

Text-book conditions in the State at present may be summarized as follows:

1. The district boards of the common districts, the trustees of graded districts, and the school boards of cities, prescribe the studies to be pursued in their schools and the text-books to be used. But they are required to make provisions for instruction in physiology and hygiene with reference to the effects of alcohol and narcotics, and to use in this study books approved by the State board of education. These provisions, when carried out, secure district uniformity.

2. District boards may supply, at the expense of the district, text-books for children whose parents are unable to furnish such books.

3. All school districts and cities may furnish free text-books for their schools in the subjects named in a previous paragraph.

4. Text-books once adopted under the free text-book act, can not be changed within five years. Text-books adopted under the general school law cannot be changed within five years, except by vote of the district, permitting or ordering the change.

The history of text-book discussions, legislation and experimentation, affords an interesting but unfortunate illustration of the ever-recurring struggle between extreme individualism on the one hand and centralization, more or less extreme, upon the other. With us the school district represents the individual; the State, centralized authority. However one's judgment decides, one's sympathy goes out to the individual. A judicious compromise is usually the wisest and most permanent settlement.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE LIBRARY SYSTEM.

The first constitution of the State made it the duty of the Legislature, "as soon as the circumstances of the State will permit" to provide for the establishment of libraries, one at least in each township; and directed that money paid for exemption from military duty, and the proceeds of fines assessed for any breach of the penal laws, should be applied exclusively to the support of such libraries. The constitution of 1850 contained a provision essentially the same. A subsequent amendment allowed the proceeds from fines to be used for other school purposes if the township board or the school board of a city should so direct. Superintendent Pierce recommended the establishment of a library in each district rather than a single central township library. "No means," he said, "next to the establishment of schools, can be more admirably adapted to the intellectual and moral culture, the improvement and progress of the people in knowledge, than the founding of well-selected libraries." The original school law permitted school districts to impose a tax for the purchase of a library case, and an annual tax of ten dollars for the purchase of books. The books might be selected by vote of a district or by the district board. No provisions were made for township libraries.

The establishment of libraries went on very slowly. Superintendent Sawyer stated, in his report for 1841, that only $170.80 had been raised for library purposes during that

year, and that nothing had been received from fines or for exemptions from military duty. He insisted upon the vast importance of judiciously selected libraries as a means of advancing common school education, and called attention to some valuable works recently published with special reference to school libraries. In obedience to the requirements of the statute, Mr. Sawyer published, in the report of 1842, rules and regulations for the management of district libraries. Superintendent Comstock, who succeeded Mr. Sawyer in 1843, published an extended list of books for use in the schools, and also for the libraries. The number of volumes in the libraries in 1850 was reported to be 84,823.

Some minor changes were made from time to time in the law relating to libraries. Township libraries were authorized, and practically, in most townships, only one library was maintained until 1859, the books of which were to be distributed, once in three months, to the various districts in the township. Some district libraries existed in addition to the central library. The funds for the support of the libraries in 1850 were the proceeds of fines and of exemption from military duty, and twenty-five dollars of the mill tax in each township.

The township plan had thus far proved so unsatisfactory and of so little real value generally that in 1859 an act was passed authorizing the voters of a township, at the annual meeting, to determine whether the township library should be continued or district libraries should be allowed in its place. If the vote was in favor of district libraries, the township inspectors were to divide the books in the township library among the several districts in the township in proportion to the number of children of school ages. The

district board was to provide for the care of the library, and library moneys belonging to the township were to be apportioned to the districts and used for the purchase of books. A majority of the township decided in favor of district libraries and the books were divided. In most townships the districts received a mere handful of books, which, in not a few cases, were soon scattered and lost. For the support of libraries the electors of the township, at the annual meeting, could vote such part of the mill tax as they pleased. In townships having district libraries, the amount so voted was apportioned to the several districts, the districts themselves having no authority at that time to vote a tax for library purposes. Generally very little money was appropriated for the purchase of books, and the district system shared the fate of the township system. State Superintendent John M. Gregory, who was himself a strong advocate of district rather than township libraries, said, in his report of 1860: "It is evident that our library system must soon go to decay and final extinguishment if left to so uncertain and precarious a support." Only 133 townships had made any appropriation from the mill tax for libraries; and in many cases, when something was voted, the amount was so small as to be "farcical." Township libraries were reported in 178 townships with an average of 323 volumes in each library. The number of district libraries reported was 2,287, with an average of 48 volumes in each. The whole number of volumes reported, in all the libraries, was 154,514, and the total resources from fines, taxes, etc., for the support of libraries was only $6,375.77. Mr. Gregory recommended that at least one-tenth of the income of the mill tax be set apart, by Legislative enactment, for the libraries, and that each dis-

trict be allowed to vote an additional sum, after providing for at least three months of free school. These recommendations did not produce any immediate effect.

Complaints in relation to the character of many of the books purchased for the libraries induced the Legislature of 1859 to enact that the State board of education should make a list of books, unsectarian in character, suitable for district and township libraries, and contract with the lowest responsible bidder to furnish these books, at a stipulated price, to the townships and districts ordering them. The district boards, or township boards of inspectors, were required to purchase books from this list, unless the voters of the districts or townships ordered otherwise. No penalty, however, was provided for failure to comply with this law on the part of districts or townships. For several years the board of education revised and published, annually or biennially, such a list; but so few books were purchased from it that, after a little time, no responsible bookseller would enter into a contract to furnish the books at reduced prices, and consequently the plan was abandoned.

Superintendent Gregory labored very zealously and persistently to secure the establishment of libraries, and to induce the Legislature to make adequate provision for their support, but his efforts were only partially successful at best. In 1861 he wrote, in his report: "It cannot be concealed that no very general popular interest is felt in these libraries." Out of 658 townships making reports, only 85 voted any appropriation from the mill tax, and the aggregate voted was only $3,058.04. In the report for that year he presented brief but most cogent reasons for urging the support of district libraries. He insisted that the school with-

out the library was incomplete. "The school teaches to read; the library furnishes the books for reading. The school teaches to think; the library furnishes the food for thought. The school awakens the mind to an active desire for knowledge; the library is the open store-house of knowledge. The school aims to awaken a taste for literary pleasure; the library is the only means by which this taste can be gratified."

In 1870 Superintendent Hosford, with characteristic caution wrote: "On the whole, the library statistics afford ground for some encouragement." The amount voted for libraries, at the township meetings that year, was $2,383.83, and the total amount paid for books, was $16,770.88. There were reported 1,366 district and 201 township libraries, with an aggregate of 150,826 volumes. In that year the school law was amended so as to allow districts to vote a tax for the support of libraries. It required continued effort for ten years to secure this amendment. While it was not the most desirable improvement, it was the best then attainable.

A decade later, 1880, Superintendent Gower wrote: "The district libraries are in a large majority of cases practically abandoned. I am convinced that it is almost impossible to maintain district libraries in any other than graded districts. The country library, to be of any value, must be a township library." "Of the 1,035 townships of the State, 334 report township libraries, while the remainder, 701, attempt to maintain district libraries. But there are only 1,268 district libraries in these 701 townships, on an average *less than two* district libraries to each township * * * * So far as I know all the townships that have a township library maintain it with a fair degree of success, while less than one-third

of the districts acting independently, have any library whatever." The total amount expended for library books during the year was $35,544.20, and the aggregate number of volumes in both the township and district libraries was 156,092.

In the same year, the number of volumes reported in city school district libraries was 105,901; and the amount paid for the support of these libraries was $18,848.87, of which $6,246.60 was raised by taxes voted by the districts.

In the year 1890 the report showed a fair increase in library facilities in graded districts, and some increase in the townships. The statistics gave 498 township libraries; libraries in districts with less than a hundred children, 762; libraries in graded and city districts 337; whole number of libraries 1,597. The money voted for township libraries was $3,446.49, and the whole amount expended for such libraries was $17,033.69. The amount paid for district libraries, including cities, was $70,310.42, making a total of $87,344.11. The number of volumes reported in all the libraries was 505,720. The statistics for 1900 show a fairly satisfactory increase in the resources of the libraries, and in the number of books added during the preceding decade. The number of township libraries had decreased, but there had been a large increase in the number of other public libraries. The township libraries reported were 426; district and city libraries 3,658; total, 4,084. Volumes in township libraries 157,177; in the other libraries 809,590; total volumes 966,767. The amount paid for support of township libraries was $9,913.55; for district and city libraries, $94,466.17; total, $104,374.72.

The following are the present provisions of law in relation to township and district libraries:

1. At least one library must he maintained in each organized township.

2. All residents of the township, not residing within the boundaries of a school district having a district library, are entitled to the privileges of the township library.

3. The township board of school inspectors have charge of the library, purchase books, make rules for the management of the library, appoint a librarian, determine where the library shall be kept, and provide all necessary appendages and conveniences.

4. Any district may establish a district library by a two-thirds vote at an annual meeting. In this case the district is entitled to its just proportion of the books in the township library, and to its equitable share of township library moneys.

5. The district school board has charge of the district library, with the same powers and duties as the township board of inspectors.

6. For the support of libraries there are:

(a). The clear proceeds of all fines for any breach of the penal laws of the State and for penalties, or upon any recognizance in criminal proceedings, and all equivalents for exemption from military duty.

(b). Taxes voted by any township at the annual meeting for the support of the township library, taxes voted by any district, at its annual meeting, for the support of the district library. The law, at this time, leaves the amount of the tax to be determined by the voters at the meeting. In case a district shall discontinue its library, the district board may donate or sell the books to the township inspectors to be placed in the township library.

The importance and value of well selected libraries in connection with the public schools are now generally recognized, and many of the cities, villages, and large graded districts have provided excellent libraries and make yearly provisions for their increase. Experience seems to have proved that district libraries are best, and can be maintained profitably, in the larger graded districts, while in the sparsely settled sections of the State, where the population of each single district is small, only township libraries can be properly supported. In several of the cities elegant and excellent buildings have been erected for the public libraries, in some cases by private munificence; and the people generally are beginning to place a proper estimate upon the value of well-selected libraries in connection with the public schools of all grades.

CHAPTER XV.

EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL RIGHTS AND PRIVILEGES.

Any extended account of the struggle to secure equality of educational rights and privileges for women in the higher public schools would be out of place here, but the subject cannot be entirely ignored even in a sketch of the development of primary and secondary education in the last part of the nineteenth century. The struggle in Michigan related chiefly to higher education, but the question of co-education, so-called, occasionally touched the lower schools in the early period. Equality of education does not necessarily mean co-education or identical education, although unfortunately it has frequently been so interpreted and insisted upon.

The open-minded seeker after truth, regardless of preconceived notions and favorite theories, must admit that the question whether boys and girls, young men and young women, of all dispositions and temperaments should be educated in the same schools, taught the same subjects, in the same classes and by the same teachers, at all periods of school life, is one that has at least two sides, and cannot be answered dogmatically and off-hand in the affirmative. The answer to this question, whether affirmatively or negatively, does not, in any way, affect the claim that simple justice demands that public education should be provided equally for both sexes.

It will help one to have more patience with the slow pro-

gress of the efforts to secure such equality for women, if he recalls the fact that equal educational rights for all classes and conditions of men, were not obtained without a series of struggles extending through centuries, and that today this equality is found in only a few of the most highly favored countries. Distinctions of class have presented obstacles even more formidable than the distinction of sex.

There were highly educated and learned women in all the historical ages, just as there were great queens and empresses, but these were the exceptions; women almost universally were until recently debarred from everything but the most elementary education. In this country before the Revolution, in the larger towns, girls were not generally admitted to the public schools with the boys. The district schools in the smaller towns were open to boys and girls alike, but the girls usually attended for only a brief period, and but few of them went beyond reading, spelling, and writing. Soon after Independence had been secured, there arose a demand in most of the larger places, for better opportunities for the education of girls. The demand, in some towns, was that they should be admitted to the boys' schools. At first, the people generally, when the question was put in the town meetings, voted to incur no additional expense for educating girls. The first concession of conservatism was to allow the masters to dismiss the boys an hour earlier in the morning, and permit the girls to come in between the forenoon and afternoon sessions for an hour or two. Reading, spelling, and penmanship were taught and the school was called a "writing school." A little later, in Boston, a double-headed system, so-called, was established, which continued for many years. Some of the public schools were

practically divided into two schools, one called the Writing school, in which reading, writing, and spelling were taught, the other the Reading school, in which arithmetic and the other elementary branches of that day were taught. Into these schools girls were admitted on the same terms as boys for six months in the year, from April to October, but the sexes did not attend at the same time. The girls, for example, attended the Writing school in the forenoon, and the boys the Reading school. In the afternoon the boys attended the Writing school, and the girls the Reading school. This singular arrangement afforded the girls half the advantages of the boys. Even under this plan the more ambitious of them got a little knowledge of arithmetic, geography, and grammar. An experimental high school for girls was organized in Boston in 1826, but proving to be more largely patronized than had been anticipated, it was continued only two years. A permanent high school for girls was not established until 1854.

The nature of the education obtained by girls, a hundred years ago, in the public district schools of the east, will be best understood from the description given by one who attended them. A lady, well-known in her day says: "I commenced going to a district school, when four years of age, and continued summer and winter until I was thirteen. During the summer terms all the pupils carried sewing and knitting, and had regular stints. I think some of the time I must have nearly earned my board by sewing. As the most we studied in school was reading, spelling, and writing, we had a good deal of time for work. In addition to the above branches, we had general exercises in learning Abbreviations, Key-sheet, Rules for Punctuation, Names of

the Towns in the County, Public Officers, and Good Manners. No arithmetic or geography was taught at that time. I think as much time was given to teaching good manners as to anything else. We were practiced in 'making our manners' going in and out of school, and to strangers passing by when we were out at play. Sometimes the pupils would arrange themselves in a line and bow or courtesy all together when the minister or a prominent person passed. We were requested to go directly home from school and 'make our manners' to our parents. All the books I can remember using were Webster's spelling book, the New England Primer, the American Preceptor, and the Bible. In the summer school I was taught every variety of sewing. In regard to discipline, I cannot remember seeing any corporal punishment in the summer school, and but little in the winter. In the summer school the teacher was paid a dollar a week and her board."

After the age of thirteen she says she attended school three winters taught by students from Harvard college, talented men and enthusiastic teachers. During these winters she studied arithmetic and geography such as was then taught, and gave much attention to reading. Corporal punishment, she says, was seldom inflicted by any of the teachers, and one teacher never inflicted it.

I have made this somewhat condensed extract from Mrs. Allen's account of her early education for the purpose of calling attention to two or three points, concerning which quite too sweeping statements have been made by not a few writers upon early education and the early schools in the country. It is sometimes stated that girls were not allowed to attend the primary schools with the boys in the

early days in New England. This statement, as we have seen, is true in relation to some, possibly all, the larger cities and towns. It is not true as to the rural schools generally. It is correct to say that the summer school was especially for the girls, but the younger boys who were not old enough to be employed on the farms or in the shops, also attended. It is true that the winter school was especially for the boys, but the older girls might also attend, as in the case of Mrs. Allen. As a rule the girls received little instruction in arithmetic or grammar.

It should be noticed that "manual training" of certain kinds was taught to the girls very generally. The boys had a fair variety of such training in connection with their home life. I can testify to the instruction in "manners" from my own personal experience in a New England district school.

The remarks of Mrs. Allen in respect to corporal punishment should be observed. It is very common for modern writers to paint the "master" of one of the old-time schools, as a sort of monster, armed with ferule, strap, and birch rods, and taking genuine pleasure in applying these to the hands and backs of his pupils. There were such "masters," many of them without doubt. But all the teachers of the common schools of the last century, or of the century before the last, were not of that kind. Humanity and humane methods in the schools, were known and practiced by many teachers even a hundred years ago. I saw very little of corporal punishment in the schools of a New Hampshire country district sixty and seventy years before the twentieth century opened. It is not necessary to darken the shades which paint the past in order to render the tints of today

lighter by contrast.

Though not entirely germane to our main purpose, it may be worth our while to know the kind of instruction and training given to young ladies in some of the better private schools, and in some of the more favored families of that period. Miss Elizabeth P. Peabody, so well-known for her efforts in behalf of kindergartens and for other services to the cause of education, in writing of some of her immediate ancestors, says: "Not a few of the colonists, women as well as men, shared in the same culture and the same responsibilities which made such sterling characters as illustrate the annals of the English commonwealth. I know that my mother had this kind of education. I remember her telling me that she never remembered the time when she did not read Shakespear, and she described herself as lying on the floor and reading it aloud to her grandmother when she was four years old." Miss Peabody's own education was not in the public schools, like Mrs. Allen's, but chiefly in a private school taught by her mother, a school which afforded to young ladies an opportunity for a most excellent secondary education. The aim of the school was History and Literature. The qualification for entrance was to be able to read English intelligibly, and the youngest pupils were eight and ten years of age. They were taught arithmetic, grammar, and writing, geography, map drawing in colors, and to write imaginary journeys requiring much consultation of gazetteers and books of travel. Four afternoons in the week were devoted to the reading of history and literature, much after the present "round-table" or "laboratory method," a good deal of conversation being had upon what was read. While one read, the others did plain

sewing or some work that would occupy the fingers and not the mind. Selections were read from the Spectator, the Rambler, and from the best Reviews. Memoirs of the most distinguished and learned women, like Mrs. Summerville, Mrs. Barbauld, and Maria Edgeworth, were given to the pupils to be read in private.

The education provided for girls and young women, in the older sections of the country, when the territory of Michigan was organized, and even later when the State government was established, was generally of the character indicated above. The public facilities for their education extended only to the lowest elementary studies. Private schools were of varying degrees of excellency, but most of them aimed to give what were called the ornamental branches, the "accomplishments."

During our Territorial period no special public provision was made for the instruction of girls; some private schools were opened, now and then, for a few months; a seminary for girls was established by "Father Richard." The organization of the State government produced no great immediate change. "Female departments" were established in connection with several of the "Branches" of the University, which provided something of secondary education. The courses of study for girls were usually less extended than those for boys, and the requirements for entrance were less.

For entrance to the male department it was necessary to pass an examination "in reading, spelling. writing, the elements of English grammar, geography, and arithmetic."

For admission to the female department an examination was required only "in reading, spelling, writing, and the rudiments of geography."

In some cases, the two departments were quite distinct in their arrangements, and in many cases the sexes were instructed in separate classes, and by different teachers. Co-education, in the full modern sense of the term, was not generally considered desirable or practicable, beyond the primary school. In 1840, in the branch at Monroe, there were 56 young men and 50 young women; at White Pigeon, 63 young men and 35 young women; at Niles, 35 young men and 22 young ladies; at Tecumseh, 48 young men and 24 young ladies. The other branches had no departments for ladies during that year. When the branches were discontinued, State provisions for secondary education, either for men or women, temporarily ceased. By the establishment of union graded schools, with high school departments, the cities and larger villages soon began to provide such education equally for both sexes, though the studies were not, in all cases, the same, and sometimes the ladies were taught in separate classes. The State normal school, when established, was open on equal terms to men and women, but the studies for both were not always identical during the first years of its history. At one period Latin and Greek were prescribed for young men, and Latin and French for young women as requisites for graduation.

The general sentiment among teachers and school officers in relation to co-education, in the decade from 1850 to 1860, may be inferred from replies to a circular of inquiry sent out by the State superintendent in 1856.

The Principal of the Ann Arbor schools said: "In the intermediate and high schools the different sexes occupy different study rooms; but they meet at all general exercises, and so constantly for instruction in classes, that there

is scarcely an hour when pupils of both sexes are not occupying every room. The advantages of the co-education of the sexes, which are too great to be sacrificed from regard to mere convenience, are thus secured; while on the other hand, the ladies of the school can receive from a Preceptress many a useful lesson, and consult her with a freedom which would otherwise be wanting."

The Principal at Coldwater wrote: "After considerable experience, I am of the opinion that the co-education of the sexes is decidedly preferable to their being educated separately. It is true that evils, serious evils, may attend this system, in individual cases; but under proper regulations and restraints I regard it as the best; and that the evils are the exceptions, not the rule."

The President of the Board of Education of Detroit, said: "So far as my experience and observation go, advantages result from the co-education of the sexes. I should never separate them in school, unless as a mere matter of convenience."

The director of the union school in Dexter wrote: "I am of the opinion that the sexes should invariably receive their mental training together."

The Principal at Flint said: "Great advantages, in my opinion, result from the education of boys and girls in the same schools, and seated in the same room; and I have never heard any disadvantages alluded to, that may not be wholly overcome, and most of them changed to great advantages, by good buildings, spacious and handsome grounds, and well-qualified teachers."

Public sentiment, from that time to the present, has generally, if not universally, favored co-education in all grades

of the public schools, with such arrangements that teachers can meet the sexes separately whenever this may be desirable, as it sometimes is.

Since it is a matter upon which all students of educational history should have some information, it will not be out of place to refer briefly to the series of discussions and efforts which resulted in opening the University and other State institutions of higher learning to women on equal terms with men.

The demand that the State should furnish opportunities and facilities for higher education for women equal to those furnished for men, began to be made at a very early period in the history of the State. The abstract justice of the demand was admitted from the beginning, but there was no haste in complying with it by any practical measures. Provisions could be made in either of two ways; the existing University could be thrown open for the admission of women, or another institution of similar character could be established for their benefit. Opinions were divided; some advocated the first plan, others preferred the second. Equally earnest and intelligent friends of advanced education for women were found in both parties. Naturally the question of expense became an important consideration in the debates.

Superintendent Shearman, in 1854, wrote: "General anxiety has been expressed relative to the establishment of an institution of high grade for the education of females. In the original plan of our educationtl system, such an institution was contemplated as a branch of the University. The education of the sexes together is deemed by the greater portion of our people as

an object of importance. They are so educated in the primary schools, and that too, without detriment to their social positions or their morals. To establish a female department in the University, would be to carry out this idea, but it would not seem after all, to be practical to do this. A general law may be necessary to secure legislation on this subject, if it is proposed to establish a separate institution. Whenever such an institution is established, however, it should be established on a practical basis:—it should be an institution not only where the graces and accomplishments which pertain to the highest cultivation of the female character can be taught, but where at the same time, instruction could be afforded in the art of domestic economy, and in those things which pertain to practical usefulness in life. The cultivation of the intellect and graces, and the knowledge required to make a loaf of bread, and to know the constituent parts of which it is composed, are things which together give the highest perfection to the true female character, and increase our appreciation of real womanhood. An institution which would secure such an education, would indeed be an object worthy of all commendation."

In 1856, Superintendent Mayhew said: "Memorials were widely circulated, and presented to the Legislature two years ago, praying for the establishment of a Female college under the fostering care of the State. This subject was then considerably discussed by the press, by members of the Legislature, by the more active friends of education, and by citizens generally in various portions of the State."

He states that memorials were then in circulation calling the attention of the Legislature "to the fact that no provision is made by the State for the education of young women

beyond the primary schools, unless they wish to become teachers," and praying that a fund might be created for the support of an institution for the higher education of women, which should give them opportunities and advantages equal to those enjoyed by young men.

Mr. Mayhew took the ground that it was not necessary to establish another institution for the higher education of women; he insisted that they had a legal right to enter the existing University on precisely the same conditions as men. To substantiate his contention he quoted the statutory provision of the act for the organization of the University: "The University shall be open to all *persons* residents of this State, without charge of tuition, under the regulations prescribed by the Regents."

If women are persons, which he believed would not be controverted, then their right to enter the University was established beyond question. Mr. Mayhew's position was not regarded as tenable by the majority of people at that time; but it is worth noting that the regents adopted essentially the same view, a few years later, when they finally opened the doors of the institution to the free admission of women.

The subject of co-education or of equal educational advantages for women was discussed frequently and earnestly at the meetings of the State teachers' association for fifteen years. The first extended debate occurred in 1855, at Ann Arbor. Upon the question whether the University should be open to women, or a separate institution should be established for them, there was considerable diversity of opinion; it was generally assumed that the courses of study in the University would necessarily have to be considerably modi-

fied if ladies were admitted, and fears were expressed that the standard would thereby be lowered. The idea of identical co-education was not, at that time, generally entertained, nor was it supposed that both sexes would be taught in the same classes in all subjects. The extension of the elective system has removed some of the difficulties then anticipated, and the natural progress of events has removed others.

One who desires to understand the views and perplexities of intelligent, candid, and conservative men in Michigan, forty or fifty years ago, should read a report made by a committee of the Board of Regents, in 1859 upon the petition of certain young women to be permitted to enter the University. The report was written in a most admirable spirit, and treated the subject in all its bearings in a manner entirely dispassionate. The conclusions of the committee were adverse to the request of the petitioners on grounds of expediency, but the right of women to equal advantages for higher education was fully admitted.

On the influence of this report President Haven said in 1867, "Since that time, I believe, no superintendent of public instruction in the State, no board of visitors, nor other authorities appointed to investigate the affairs of the Universiy, have recommended a departure from the policy established from the beginning." Of the results which would follow the admission of women, he said: "I am confident that such a change could not be made without a radical revolution, that would require a large expenditure of money and give a totally new character to the University, and infallibly be attended with a temporary breaking up of its prosperity." He favored the establishment of a separate college for women which should give them all the facilities en-

joyed by young men.

During the same year the Legisature resolved: "That it is the deliberate opinion of this Legislature that the high objects for which the University of Michigan was organized will never be fully attained until women are admitted to all its rights and privileges."

This put a new aspect upon affairs; and in his report of the following year, Dr. Haven, after referring to this resolution and to his previously expressed opinions, stated that he had come to the conclusion "that the best method for Michigan would be to make provisions for the instruction of women at the University, on the same conditions as men." He took a more cheerful and hopeful view of the probable consequences than he had taken the previous year. He said: "I have come to this conclusion slowly; a few objections have sometimes seemed to me strong, but the most of what is urged against it is fanciful, and partakes of the nature of the thoughtless opposition made to what is new. The standard of education would not be changed, the habits of study would not be affected. The honor of the University would be increased rather than diminished." President Haven, more than most men of his rank, was exempt from that false notion of consistency which forbids a man to acknowledge that he has changed his opinion, or that circumstances may justify a change of policy.

Two years later, on the fifth of January, 1870, the governing board of the institution resolved, "That the Board of Regents recognize the right of every resident of Michigan to the enjoyment of the privileges of the University; and that no rule exists in the University statutes for the exclusion of any *person* from the University, who possesses the

requisite literary and moral qualifications." This ended a struggle which had continued for five and twenty years. All State educational institutions in Michigan, from the lowest to the highest, are open on the same conditions to both sexes.

Attempts have been made to claim special credit and special honor for particular individuals or particular organizations in bringing about this result. Many individuals are entitled to great credit and to grateful remembrance, for their efforts towards securing equality of educational rights and privileges for women; but preëminence cannot with justice be claimed for any one person. The end was attained by the combined labors of the friends of justice and of rational progress. It is a natural outgrowth of the spirit of the age.

CHAPTER XVI.

AS TO MORAL AND RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

The religious instinct or sentiment is one of the most fundamental and powerful elements in the human soul, and in human society. The question of the origin of this sentiment is not important for our present purpose; its existence and influence must be recognized.

The men of today are prone to judge the men and measures of a half century ago by the standards and conditions of the present decade; to forget the changes which have occurred, the liberalizing influence of a broader and more general culture, the humanizing effects of more intimate intercourse and acquaintance between people of all classes, of all sorts, and of diverse opinions and races. Some one has said: "It is all well enough for us of another generation to wax wise with advice to those who bore the burden and heat of the day." It indicates our superior wisdom, and gratifies our self-complacency. This tendency is not wanting among the workers in the educational field; occasionally it manifests itself in an offensive form.

In the organization of public school systems, in the management of public institutions of learning of all grades, in the selection of officers and instructors, and in educational affairs generally, it has been a necessity, in the not very remote past, to take this religious sentiment into account; and the time has not yet come when it can with safety be entirely ignored, whatever may be the affirmations of a sur-

face philosophy and of men with no profound personal convictions upon the subject of morals or religion.

The founders of the Michigan school system wisely recognized these obvious truths. In his first report Superintendent Pierce said: "It is not to be expected that the study of theology, as a profession, can ever be made a separate department of the University. * * * * But so far as the great principles of the science of theology are concerned, they necessarily come within the compass of that general knowledge with which every well educated young man ought to be acquainted."

The first legislative act for the organization of that institution provided for a Professorship "of moral philosophy, and natural theology, including the history of all religions." So much Mr. Pierce believed to be essential to the continued existence of the University. While no religious test should be allowed, and no sectarian dogmas should be inculcated, yet Christianity, as the religion of the people, should be fully and freely recognized. He wrote: "The fact is not to be concealed that there is a strong prejudice in the minds of many worthy and enlightened men against State institutions. This feeling has originated from the attempt of two or three States to exclude everything in the form of religion from their universities. The moral sense of the community was found to be against the plan, and the institutions could not flourish. The truth is, the nature of man is such that this result might have been anticipated. There is a medium between bigotry on the one hand, and atheism on the other, and the success of the University, its life, energy, character and usefulness, will essentially depend on that medium course."

The board of regents recognized the wisdom of this medium course in providing teachers for the "branches," and also in selecting Professors for the University itself. It was necessary, moreover, to avoid giving offense to one sect by an appearance of favoring some other. "Sectarian opinion and sectarian feeling were far sharper in 1837 than they are in 1900," and had to be reckoned with in the management of all public educational institutions.

In an early report of the regents, written probably by Mr. Schoolcraft, a gentleman of national reputation and not a clergyman, when speaking of the selection of instructors, he said: "It was conceived that the requirements of the act and the duty of the board in this respect would not have been fully performed by merely obtaining instructors of competent literary and natural abilities, disconnected from their moral influence, both in the branches and the communities in which they are located, and it has ever constituted an object to find men both as principals and subordinates, who united sound learning and apt judgment, and practical piety. Of the seven branches established, five are under the direction of clergymen, and two of laymen, of various religious denominations. Two clergymen are also embraced among the assistants and tutors, the whole number of whom add to their literary qualifications those arising from religious considerations. The board cannot, they believe, be mistaken in the importance they attach to the connection between learning and morals, science and religion; and at any rate, they would be unjust to themselves not to express the belief that success can not permanently crown the institution committed to their management, after this ligament is severed."

In a report of the following year, Dr. Duffield, one of the most prominent and influential men of his denomination, wrote: "Whatever variations of sect exist in the United States, the great mass of the population profess an attachment to Christianity, and, as a free people, avow themselves Christian. There is a common ground occupied by them all, sufficient for co-operation in an institution of learning, and for the presence of a religious influence, devoid of any sectarian forms and peculiarities, so essential, not only as the most efficient police, but also for the development and formation of the most valuable traits of youthful character, and qualifications for future usefulness. Experiments made in other States, by catering to morbid prejudices of sectarians, have only embarrassed the institutions of the State and matured the growth of numerous and rival colleges, avowedly sectarian. Attempts made to exclude all religious influence whatever from colleges, have only rendered them the sectarian engines of an atheistical or infidel party or faction, and so offended and disgusted the majority of the population agreeing in their respect for a common Christianity, that they have withdrawn their support, confidence and patronage, and left them to drag out a miserable existence, till they invoked the presence and influence of the Christian religion in them."

These extracts have reference to the management of institutions of advanced and secondary instruction. The same considerations, however, had equal weight, at that period, in the management of elementary schools. Such schools had their origin in the early Christian church, and were for a long time controlled by its ministers. The instruction given in them was more religious than secular or literary.

In our own country, during the colonial period, they were as much parochial as public, and their character did not change immediately when the colonies became States. "They were under the constant and vigilant supervision of the ministers. The minister was a town officer, as the teacher was. He was employed for the religious instruction of the people, and the children were a most important part of his charge. So he visited the school regularly; frequently questioned the children on the sermon of the preceding Sunday, and periodically examined them in the catechism and in their knowledge of the Bible. Sometimes the children were required to go to him for this purpose. The ministers regarded this relation not only as a duty, but as a right."* In Massachusetts, and in some others States, the first school books were the Bible, the Psalter, and the famous New England Primer. In some of the schools the Shorter Catechism was regularly used. Gradually the Spelling book and some Reader took the place of these for reading purposes, although more or less of religious instruction continued to be given for many years.

In the older States no controversies concerning religious instruction in the schools took place so long as the people generally belonged to the same church and accepted the same creed. But the springing up of new sects, with conflicting articles of faith, changed the aspect of affairs. Religious teaching and exercises which favored one sect at the expense of another began to arouse vigorous opposition. The contention, at first, was not between the friends and the enemies of religion or of the Bible, but between differing

* Martin's Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System, page 64.

denominations. It was not the question of the Bible in the schools, but of sectarian interpretations of Biblical doctrines. As an unavoidable result, religious instruction in the public schools gradually ceased, and unfortunately moral instruction and training, in many cases, ceased at the same time. It was not believed that morals could be taught apart from religion. The reading of the Bible was continued in the majority of the schools, although the question of its use was beginning to be agitated.

Such was the condition of affairs in Massachusetts in 1837, when Horace Mann became Secretary of the newly created Board of Education, and "The Common School Revival" began. Similar conditions existed in other States, and especially in the State of New York. Michigan, just organizing her school system, could not escape the influence of these conditions. The population of the new State was mostly of New England or New York origin. Of the one hundred members of the constitutional convention of 1850, eighty-one were natives of New England and New York. They had brought with them their inherited and acquired opinions and prejudices. Doubtless new surroundings and new associations tended to modify these to a considerable extent, but it needed only slight provocation to kindle up the smouldering embers into fierce flames. Mr. Mann soon found himself under a fire of sharp criticism upon the religious question and a bitter and prolonged controversy followed. No extended account can be given here of the conflict, but it is necessary to refer to it briefly for the better understanding of conditions in Michigan. Dr. B. A. Hinsdale writes: "The struggle that now ensued in Massachusetts was the first of its kind witnessed in the country.

Since that day it has been repeated in many other States. Nor can it be confidently predicted that it will not be repeated again. In fact, in some form, more or less active, this struggle has been going on from that day to this. The issue is confessedly a most important one. It involves nothing else than the question of adjusting the State school to the whole existing system of agencies by which the religious training of children is carried on, the family, the Sunday-school, and the church."*

In the end Mr. Mann was sustained by a great majority of the people of the State, a law was enacted which, with a slight modification, remains still upon the statute book, requiring the Bible to be read daily in all the public schools of that Commonwealth. Children may be excused from taking part in this exercise at the request of their parents.

The controversy in New York arose under different circumstances, and took a different form, but it was fully as bitter as in Massachusetts and more protracted. The vital question involved was the distribution of the proceeds of the public school funds and school taxes among the various religious denominations and organizations to be used for the support of parochial and other sectarian schools. Some of the most prominent public men of the State, among them Governor Seward, favored such a distribution. The demand, however, for such division was rejected. The legislative act for the settlement of the controversy contained this provision: "No school shall be entitled to receive any portion of the school moneys, in which the religious doctrines or tenets of any particular Christian or other reli-

*Hinsdale's Horace Mann and the Common School Revival, page 214.

gious sect shall be taught, inculcated, or practiced, or in which any book or books containing compositions favorable or prejudicial to the particular doctrines or tenets of any religious sect * * * * But nothing herein contained shall authorize the Board of Education to exclude the Holy Scriptures, without note or comment, or any selections therefrom, from any of the schools provided for in this act."*

It was inevitable that the echoes of these angry conflicts should be heard in the forests of the new State. The most imminent danger was that jealousy should be aroused between different religious bodies; the demand for purely secular schools was not yet a source of disquiet. This would be heard in due time. It was the part of wisdom to avoid, as far as possible, all occasion for controversy, to provoke no disputes or conflicts, which, whatever, might be their termination, could not fail to work serious harm, if not positive disaster. Hence the wise and cautious conservatism of Superintendent Pierce and his immediate successors, and the careful prudence of the regents of the University.

Neither in the first nor in the second constitution of the State does the article on Education make any reference to religion or to moral and religious instruction. In what may be called the bill of rights, the constitution of 1835 provides for freedom of worship, forbids taxation for the support of ministers or teachers of religion, and declares that "no money shall be drawn from the treasury for the benefit of religious societies, or theological or religious seminaries," and that the rights and privileges of individuals shall not be affected in any way by their religious opinions or beliefs.

*Randall's History of the Common School System of New York, page 138.

The constitution of 1850 contains, in substance, the same provisions, with a special provision that the Legislature may authorize the employment of a chaplain for the State Prison; but forbids the appropriation of money to pay for religious services in either house of the Legislature.

The early utterances of Superintendent Pierce and of the regents of the University have been noticed; it remains to follow the course of subsequent events and measures. The authorities of the University have never formally announced any definite policy upon religious questions, but have continued to follow, in the main, the course outlined by Mr. Schoolcraft and Dr. Duffield. They have received criticism, sometimes because there was too little religion, as it was charged; and at other times because there was, in the opinion of the critics, too much. While this is not intended to be a history of the University, a little further reference to this particular phase of its history seems necessary to our purpose.

In 1857, the representatives of one of the largest of the religious organizations of the State, in their yearly meetings, made deliverances of which the following are the main points: "The University of Michigan has heretofore received high commendation from the ministry of our church, but we are sorry to say that many of its friends have their fears that its moral and religious condition is such as greatly to impair its usefulness. It is for the future to show whether it shall be a safe abode for the sons of Christian parents during the most important period of their education. We are compelled to fear that it is so defective in those moral and religious restraints and influences which ought always to be thrown around students of literary in-

stitutions, that it can not be patronized by our citizens without imminent peril to the moral and religious character of those youths who may be sent there for instruction, and until there is a decided improvement in this respect, we must say to the Christian public, beware!"

This was the most serious direct and public attack ever made upon the university touching the question of moral and religious influence. Coming from such a source it could not, at that time, have been safely ignored. The regents requested the President and faculties to report to them, as far as practicable, "the moral conduct of the students attending the university, and the means employed to impress upon them sound moral and religious principles."

A report was accordingly made, drawn up with evident care, temperate in its language, and excellent in its spirit. This document is of special historic interest as indicating the peculiarly sensitive state of the public mind, at that time, upon the religious question, and also the means then employed to inculcate moral and religious principles. Among other things, it was stated that, as at other public educational institutions of the State, "the Scriptures were read and prayers were offered every morning in the chapel of the University, that several series of public lectures had been given Sunday afternoons on the evidences of the Christian religion, and that weekly religious meetings were held among the students."*

While the "Branches" of the University were in existence, it had been a rule that the exercises of each day should be opened "with the reading of the Scriptures and prayer,"

*Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for 1857.

and students were required to be present unless excused at the request of their parents. Generally the rules in relation to religious exercises at the State institutions were essentially the same as those in the denominational schools.

Occasionally attacks have been made upon the State schools from a different quarter. They have been charged with teaching too much religion and exerting an influence too positively Christian. About the year 1873 a legislative committee investigated the condition of religious affairs at the University, in respect to such a charge, but found no occasion for alarm or criticism. Changed conditions and doubts as to the real value of required attendance upon certain formal "exercises" of a character more or less religious and ethical, have gradually led to the abandonment of such required attendance in most State institutions, and in some cases to the practical abandonment of these exercises altogether. Touching the wisdom of this course a difference of opinion exists among men equally desirous that the influence of a school shall be decidedly on the side of sound morality and of practical religion. The growth and activity of voluntary organizations, such as the Y. M. C. A. in which students and teachers can, to a considerable extent, coöperate, may have fully supplied the place of the old-time official requirements. At any rate the experiment will have to be tried.

The history of "the religious question" in connection with the elementary and secondary public schools of the State must be briefly considered. Some of the conditions in these schools were similar to those in the older States; other conditions were very different. The population was less homogeneous, and the diversity of opinions was, if possible, even

greater. No one sect had acquired, as in Massachusetts, a sort of prescriptive and traditional claim to an exclusive or at least a predominant influence in the management of the public schools. The claims of one sect were as valid as those of any other. There was no authoratative dead past to fetter the free activity of the living present. Old beliefs, old modes of thought, old habits of action, old school books, and old modes of management were all here, but they were inextricably intermingled. The immediate need was a spirit of mutual respect; a readiness to yield as well as to demand, a full recognition of the great law of doing as one would be done by. The fact that a large majority of the people had not passed the period of middle life made all this easier.

The opinions and recommendations of Superintendent Pierce have already been referred to. He was succeeded in 1841 by Franklin Sawyer who held the superintendency two years. Some premonitions of a possible storm were seen and heard here and there, and Mr. Sawyer thought it wise to make himself acquainted with the actual condition of affairs and with the sentiments of the people throughout the State. In a circular issued in 1841, he asked these, among other questions, of the school directors: "Is religious instruction inculcated in your school? If so, what kind, sectarian or otherwise? What religious books are used?" In referring to the replies received, Mr. Sawyer says: "While a certain amount of religious instruction is encouraged in many schools, sectarianism finds no admission. This remark, it is believed, can be made without an exception; at least such is the tone of all the reports which have reached this office. The extreme sensitiveness on this point, as

betrayed in the numerous replies, argues a healthy state of public opinion. * * * * A school without moral instruction, lacks the essentials of a right education, as evidently the school open to sectarianism exceeds them. No system can be perfect that is not based upon the great practical requisites of Christianity—"Do unto others as you would have others do unto you, and love thy neighbor as thyself."

At a little later period Mr. Sawyer propounded these inquiries to the school inspectors of the State: "To what extent are morals inculcated in the schools? Where would you draw the line between moral training and religious culture, so as to avoid the evil of sectarianism, and at the same time give to the youthful heart a right direction?" The Superintendent quoted freely in his report from the answers received, and occasionally commented upon them in his own peculiar and entertaining style. It was universally agreed that sectarianism should not be tolerated, but evidently there was a difference of opinion as to what constituted sectarianism. Mr. Sawyer wrote: "One thinks that morality should be inculcated," and that "to love and serve God should be taught both by precept and example; but in order to avoid sectarianism, no portion of the teacher's time should be devoted to prayer or exhortation while engaged in school." Another, "that the best way to avoid the evil is, to exclude sectarian books from school." A third, "that it may be done by teaching the precepts of the Bible, and leaving the pupil mostly to his own understanding of them, without comment by the teachers." A fourth recommends a "general reverence for the Supreme Being." A fifth would have "the great moral law of God brought before the children, and have them early taught that the Bible is of divine revelation,

and that, if its principles are carried out by us, it is more conducive to our happiness and the happiness of others, than any other rule of action." A sixth, "would never meddle with morals and religion, but teach the difference between right and wrong, by reasoning with the children." A seventh "would keep morals and religion at home and in the Sabbath school." * * * * A tenth thinks that the pious teacher can not do less "than to exhort his pupils to observe the Sabbath, abstain from profane language, be careful always to speak the truth, read the Bible, regard its precepts, acknowledge God in all their ways, believing He will direct their steps, and likewise have a portion of the Word of God read every day in the school, and a prayer offered to Him who heareth prayer for guidance and direction." * * * * A twelfth recommends "the ten commandments and the sermon on the mount." A thirteenth would have the teacher avoid sectarianism, but "present to his scholars the leading principles of God's law and the peculiar characteristics of the plan of salvation through a crucified Redeemer, and impress upon the young and tender mind the necessity of repentance and faith, and becoming reconciled to God without delay." A fourteenth, while expressing his opposition to sectarianism, is not "settled how far Universalists and Infidels should be regarded." These excerpts are interesting as indicating the opinions of the ordinary men in the school districts at that time. Mr. Sawyer says in conclusion: "In excluding sectarianism from all schools supported by the public purse the cardinal virtues must not be banished; without virtue no system of instruction can perfect its work. If the teacher is fit to be placed over a school, he will, by precept and by his own exemplary conduct, teach

all that the most rigid morality can ask. More than this would be trenching on forbidden ground; less would be conclusive evidence of unfitness for his place."

Oliver C. Comstock who became Superintendent in 1843, in speaking of subjects to be taught and the books to be used in the public schools, said: "It will be seen that the undersigned has placed on the lists of books to be used in the primary schools, the New Testament and the Bible Reader, a book made up of selections from the Bible. He, moreover, thinks that the Bible should be daily and reverently read in the school by the teacher. This exercise may be accompanied with prayer, or this may be omitted, according as the character of the teacher and his sense of duty shall indicate. In this recommendation, he is only walking in the footsteps of multitudes of the most distinguished teachers of schools, and supervisors of education in Europe and America. Since however, the course here recommended, has been opposed, and has evoked much earnest discussion, he may be indulged in giving it more than a mere passing notice." Mr. Comstock then goes on, at considerable length, to give his reasons for recommending the daily use of the Bible in the schools. He believed "all consistent moral and religious character depended upon the instruction derived from the Bible and upon the influence of that book. He believed that the God of the Bible honored those who regarded his laws, and that He commanded the teaching of its precepts diligently to the young; that children should be educated in the nurture and admonition of the Lord." He regarded the style of the Bible, its language as unparalleled in its purity, simplicity and majesty. "In didactic argumentation, forensic eloquence, and sublime poetry it is superlatively

excellent. In whatever light, therefore, we consider the Bible, whether for its historic information, its doctrinal precepts, or for the unrivalled excellency of its composition, we perceive its commanding claims on the serious and habitual attention of teachers and scholars."

The first serious conflict upon this subject occurred in the City of Detroit. In a brief sketch of the public schools of that city, written by D. Bethune Duffield and published in the State Superintendent's report for 1851, it is said: "About three years after the schools were fairly started, and just as they commenced taking form and shape, the board were called to encounter a storm which came near wrecking the whole system, and which, but for the prudent and temperate management of those then entrusted with the interests of the schools, must necessarily have resulted most disastrously to the permanent educational interests of our city. I refer to our first encounter with that perplexing, yet all important subject, the proper introduction of the Bible into the public schools." The contest continued with great vigor and with not a little acrimony for several months. "The religious feeling of the citizens was thoroughly aroused in reference to the matter, and the lines openly drawn between Protestants and Catholics. Petitions with innumerable names poured in upon the board, some asking positively for the introduction of the Bible as a text-book in the schools, and others soliciting the very contrary, and insisting upon its total exclusion. So high did the excitement rise that many citizens on both sides of the question did not hesitate openly to declare, that unless their particular views were carried out in this matter, they would gladly see the entire school system broken up and swept away from our city. After this in-

temperate zeal of many had in a measure abated, the board proceeded to the discharge of their duty by calmly acting on the question, and settled the whole difficulty by the adoption of the following resolutions:

1. "That it is the opinion of this board that there is nothing in their rules and by-laws at all conflicting with the right of any teacher in the employment of this board, to open his or her school by reading, without note or comment, from any version of the Bible they may choose, either Catholic or Protestant.

2. That any teacher who shall in any way note, comment, or remark in his or her school, upon passages of Scripture, shall be removed from his or her school, upon the proof thereof being made to the committee of his or her school—the decision of said committee being subject, however, to review by the board. Thus was this threatening peril avoided, the influence of the Bible fully preserved in the schools, and the school system itself saved from the ruin which seemed at first impending over it."

Referring to this excitement in Detroit, Dr. E. O. Haven, in his autobiography, writes: "The University of Michigan, being at the head of the educational system of the State, naturally felt the influence of the excitement, and I, therefore, delivered a discourse on the subject in Ann Arbor, in which I took the ground, now so commonly occupied, that the State had no right to teach religion by compulsion in the public schools. The discourse attempted to show that public schools should be unsectarian and teach no religious doctrine seriously objected to by the parents of any of its pupils. It was printed in full by the papers, and was said much to allay the excitement."

In 1853 an effort, similar to the one in New York, was made to secure a division of the proceeds of the primary school fund among the various religious bodies to be used for the support of parochial schools. A memorial was addressed to the Legislature and all possible influence was exerted to accomplish the desired purpose. The memorial stated that the signers, "have labored, and are still laboring, under grievances to which neither justice nor patriotism required longer submission." They were taxed for the support of schools which they could not conscientiously allow their children to attend. Consequently, in addition to the taxes which they paid to support the public schools, they were obliged to tax themselves for the education of their own children in other schools. The idea which these petitioners entertained of free schools was peculiar and worthy of note. They said: "Schools can be free only when the business of school teaching be placed on the same footing as the other learned professions; when all may teach who will, their success depending, as in other cases, on their fitness for their profession, and the satisfaction they may render to the public; that in all cases the parent be left free to choose the teacher to whom he will entrust the education of his child, as he is to choose his physician, his lawyer, etc.; that each person teaching any public school in the State should be entitled to draw from the public school fund, such sums as the law might provide, for every child so taught, by the month, quarter, or otherwise, on producing such evidence as the law might require in such cases. Schools established on such principles are what your petitioners understand by free schools."

A bill was introduced into both branches of the Legisla-

ture providing for such division of the funds, and referred to the proper committees. The Senate committee agreed upon a report, and set forth their reasons for rejecting the bill. The House committee failed to agree, and two reports were presented, the majority report being adverse to the prayer of the memorialists. The report of the minority gave, in extended form, considerations and arguments which led to the conclusion that the bill should be enacted into a law.

The general spirit of this document may be estimated from a few excerpts, all that space will allow. It was said: "Without in any respect entering into any questions, in either doctrine or manners, between the members of the various religious denominations, and between them all and those who have no religion, the fact can not be concealed that the doctrines and religious ceremonies of the many Protestant denominations are held by the Catholic church to be utterly subversive of morals, and utterly damning to the soul. And those skeptics, neither few nor without commanding position in society, look upon all these systems of religion as mere superstitions, the relics of a darker age; while they are equally abhorred by the more devout of all religious denominations. Since these differences must run through the whole system of education, it will be impossible to educate the children of such differing parents together without doing great wrong to some or all of them." The report admitted that some difficulties would be met in carrying out the provisions of the bill in sparsely populated portions of the State, but these might be overcome as readily as other difficulties incident to a new country. The bill did not command a large support, and no serious subsequent

effort has been made in that direction.

Several very earnest and protracted discussions of the question of the use of the Bible in the schools and of religious instruction took place in the meetings of the State Teachers' Association. At a meeting in 1854 in Detroit a committee made an extended report closing with a series of resolutions characterized more by partisan zeal than by practical wisdom. After a short debate the whole matter was referred to another committee instructed to report at the next meeting of the association to be held in August of the same year at Marshall. The importance attached to the subject is indicated by the composition of this committee, which consisted of Hon. Ira Mayhew, the Superintendent of Public Instruction; Dr. E. O. Haven of the University; Principal A. S. Welch and Prof. J. F. Cary of the normal school; and Rev. C. A. Leach. The committee were unable to agree and two able reports were presented, one by Dr. Haven, the other by Prof. Welch.

Dr. Haven took the ground that no religious instruction of any kind should be given in the State schools, and that the Bible should not be read if a single resident of a district objected, nor should prayer be offered, since religion might be taught indirectly by prayers. As already indicated, the controversy, at that time, was largely between the zealous Catholics and the equally zealous Protestants.

Prof. Welch's report favored the use of the Bible, and the giving of instruction "in those religious principles upon which the government of the State was founded."

The discussion upon the reports was long, vigorous, and at times excited. Among those participating in the debate, were Hon. Levi Bishop of Detroit, and J. VanArman, Esq.,

a prominent lawyer of Marshall, both of whom strongly advocated the use of the Bible. Dr. Haven was the principal speaker upon the other side, supported by Rev. Mr. Trowbridge of Marshall. It was remarked at the time that the attorneys, though not professedly religious men, advocated the use of the Bible, while several of the distinguished clergymen present opposed such use under existing conditions. A tolerably full report of this discussion may be found in Vol. I, of the Michigan Journal of Education.

A second somewhat extended debate occurred at the meeting at Pontiac in 1859, less excited than the one in 1854, but still very earnest. Among the speakers was Hon. J. M. Gregory, then Superintendent of public instruction. In the course of his remarks he said: "No danger threatens the common school system so much as that of not being able to retain there sufficient moral influence to render them safe resorts for our children. The schools are not now immoral, but there is a necessity for a higher moral training; the moral training of the school should be higher than that of the ordinary family or the street. It is feared that we can not introduce moral instruction enough to save them. The question of the right of religious instruction in the schools can not be easily settled, nor is agitation made productive of any good. There is little danger of teaching sectarianism. A danger a hundred fold greater is, we shall injure the schools by attempting to keep religious instruction out of them. There can be no neutrality. We must either gather in or scatter abroad. If we want to keep religion out of the schools, we must keep religious men out of them. He wished to direct public attention away from the remote danger of sectarianism to the immediate, practical,

and urgent one, that the school will be deprived of all religion."

At the conclusion of the debate it was resolved unanimously: "That we believe the education of the moral faculties to be one of the fundamental principles of instruction—that upon this education rests the happiness and prosperity of the State; and we recommend the daily reading of the Bible in our public schools."

This topic came before the association once more at Saginaw in December, 1869. The immediate occasion of the discussion was an excited state of feeling produced by the then recent action of the school board of Cincinnati embodied in the resolution: "That religious instruction and the reading of religious books, including the Holy Bible, are prohibited in the common schools of Cincinnati, it being the true object and intent of this rule to allow the children of the parents of all sects and opinions in matters of faith and worship, to enjoy alike the benefits of the common school fund."

Prof. Joseph Estabrook delivered a carefully prepared address, and brief but earnest remarks were made by several of the leading members of the association, generally favoring the use of the Bible in the schools.

Among other things bearing upon the question, Mr. Estabrook said: "The question now forced upon our consideration is not whether the Bible shall be *introduced* into our public schools; but, being already in them, whether it shall be continued or *excluded.* There is a wide and important difference between the two questions. The Bible in our schools is the symbolical recognition of our Christianity. The removal of it announces a national religious change.

* * * * Christianity has entwined itself around our very national life; it has embedded itself into our literature and like an atmosphere pervades all our institutions, so that to remove it from them were to lay the axe at the very root of our national being. The reason why this Bible has had a place upon the desks of our public schools is because it has been recognized as the text-book of American civilization—the corner-stone on which our fathers built—the fountain of a conservative, healing, purifying influence in our commonwealth. The exclusion of the Bible is only the first step in the fearful descent to blank godlessness, a total divorce from our systems of instruction of every thought that connects the finite with the infinite, and a mortal with his immortal destiny. * * * * What is the significance of this movement? Is the Bible a dangerous book to the youth of our country? Does it inculcate an impure or defective morality?" These extracts indicate the view and feelings of a very large part of the most prominent educators of that period. At the close of the discussion the following resolution was adopted without dissent: "That we believe the Bible should not be excluded from our public schools, and that such exclusion would not, in our opinion, render the schools more acceptable to any class of our citizens."

No extended debates upon the religious question, or upon the use of the Bible in the schools has taken place in the meetings of the association during recent years. But the importance of moral instruction and training has been frequently urged in papers and addresses.

The conviction is growing in the minds of most thoughtful men and women that the schools generally are not doing all that is desirable in the way of ethical instruction and

training; but what method shall be adopted to secure such instruction and training has not yet been determined. The question of providing for teaching morals and of the use of the Bible, and of opening exercises of a semi-religious character in the schools, is wisely left to be determined by local school officials, or by the teachers, in view of local conditions and sentiment. The natural result is that great diversity of usage is found in the State, and in many cases no appreciable moral or religious influence is exerted by the schools. This is to be regretted; but it is not easy, with existing public sentiment, to prescribe a remedy which may not prove worse than the evil. Some practical solution of this perplexing problem may be hoped for in the not very remote future.

CHAPTER XVII.

SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, AND STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

Michigan was the first of the states to make a superintendent of public instruction a constitutional officer. Legislative enactments had previously created such an officer in two or three cases. The constitution of 1835 provided for a superintendent, but left his powers and duties to be determined entirely by law. The constitution of 1850 only added the provision that he should have "the general supervision of public instruction." Superintendent Shearman, in 1852, wrote: "The framers of the constitution looked to the superintendent for a general supervision, not only of primary schools, but of the university, colleges, academies, high schools, and all schools established throughout the state. True, the immediate government of these institutions was to be confided to the management and control of local officers, adapted to the character and wants of each, but over all, as representing the guardian watchfulness and interest of the State, was intended to be the general officer of Public Instruction, accumulating all the material of this congregated effort, and laying it, in embodied form, before the tribunal of the people and their legislatures; devising and maturing plans for improvement; requiring full information in every particular relating to the annual condition and progress of all these institutions; impressing the im-

portance of education by public lectures and personal visitations in the various counties and districts; infusing life and zeal, and spreading information among all; and from advantages of position in acquiring knowledge, ensuring progression in all that relates to educational, intellectual, and moral achievement." It is probable that the earliest State superintendents had somewhat exalted ideas in relation to the dignity and prerogatives of their office. If so, evidently the legislative body, whose province it was to determine the extent of their powers and to prescribe their duties, labored under no delusion in the matter. The educational legislation of the first two decades evinces a constant disposition on the part of the legisators to reserve to themselves the ultimate decision, as far as possible, of every important question.

The first duties imposed upon the superintendent were necessarily of a temporary nature and related chiefly to the organization of the school system. These were indicated in chapter four. After the organization of the system, until the establishment of the Land Office in 1843, the time and attention of the superintendent were devoted mainly to the care of the lands donated to the State for educational purposes and to the management of the funds derived from the sale of these lands. As this was a temporary condition of affairs, no details of the character of the work done need be given. The duties were altogether inappropriate to an officer charged with "the general supervision of public instruction." Superintendent Shearman was correct in stating that "The disposition of lands and the management of funds granted for the support of education" were not within the original purpose of the superintendency.

The plan of extending the supervising authority of the superintendent over the University, although well meant and not inconsistent with a State system of education embracing all grades of schools, resulted in friction, and in more or less serious conflicts of authority. Superintendent Pierce's connection with the management of the affairs of the University saved that institution, at one period, from a great, if not irreparable, disaster. Nevertheless, the regents naturally became restive under the restraint which his coördinate authority imposed, and the University was at an early period, made exempt from the official supervision of the superintendent. That officer was thenceforth free to devote himself to the development and improvement of primary and secondary education in the State.

The revised statutes which followed the adoption of the constitution of 1850, made the superintendent's powers and duties essentially the following:

1. To prepare and transmit to the Legislature, through the governor, an annual report containing a statement of the condition of all the educational institutions of the State; an account of the expenditures of school money; plans for the improvement of the educational system and the management of the educational funds; and such other matters relating to his office and to education as he deemed expedient.

2. To make abstracts of the reports of school officers; to cause the school laws to be printed and distributed, with forms necessary for the transaction of school business, and instructions to school officers relative to the organization and management of schools and relative to the studies to be pursued in them; to annex to the laws a list of books best adapted for use in the primary schools, and also a list

suitable for township libraries, with rules for the management of libraries.

3. To apportion annually to the cities and townships the income of the primary school fund, and to make all necessary arrangements for its proper distribution. These were, in substance, all the duties imposed upon the highest educational officer of the State. They were mainly clerical, and involved only very limited authority. The functions of the superintendency were, at this time, reduced to the lowest terms; from this point we shall anticipate an increase in powers and responsibilities.

The legislative acts of 1849 establishing a normal school, created a Board of Education of three members, to be appointed by the governor with the consent of the senate, and with the superintendent of public instruction and the Lieutenant Governor, ex-officio members, the superintendent being secretary of the board. The consolidated act of the next year added the State Treasurer who was also to be the treasurer of the board. This was the first permanent addition to the duties of the superintendent, and opened to him a wide field of labor entirely germane to the original purpose of his office.

The convention of 1850 made the Board of Education a constitutional body, its members being elected by the people for a term of six years. The superintendent was continued as a member and secretary, thus, in effect, being made the executive officer of the board. The only original function of the board was to locate, organize, and control the normal school. Other duties might be prescribed by law, and all added duties increased by so much the sphere of labor and influence open to the superintendent.

Until 1851, the office of the superintendent had been migratory, being usually at his residence wherever that happened to be. He had not, except in special cases, been authorized to employ an assistant or a clerk. Gradually the official and necessary un-official correspondence became burdensome, and occupied the larger part of his time. Moreover the compensation was very meager, the salary from 1845 to 1849 being only $500 a year. The esteem in which the department of public instruction had come to be held may be inferred from the report of a legislative committee at the session of 1850. The report said: "The department of public instruction ought to be regarded as second to none in the State government. The duties of it follow every family in the State to its very fireside, and invite them to an interested coöperation in labors of great importance to the well-being of the State. The performance of such duties by the head of such a department, demands the employment of talents of a high order and of the utmost business activity. The report of the superintendent shows a diligent attention to a great variety of duties, and which must have involved an amount of labor for which the compensation allowed by law is a most inadequate remuneration. Your committee, therefore, take leave to express the hope that this injustice will be suffered to exist no longer; but that a greater efficiency in the office may be secured by placing it, in regard to compensation of the incumbent, on the same level with other State Officers, whose duties are neither more important nor onerous. It is hoped that the head of a department so important as this will no longer be regarded as a clerkship of little responsibility and but inconsiderable labor." The new constitution, adopted in that year, fixed

the annual salary of the superintendent, and several of the other state officers, at one thousand dollars, thus placing him, in this respect, on a level with his associates.

A DEPUTY SUPERINTENDENT.

In 1851, by an act of the Legislature, the State Library room was appropriated to the use of the superintendent as a permanent office, and the librarian was directed "to perform such duties as may from time to time be required by the superintendent, free of expense to the State." In his report for 1854 Superintendent Shearman stated that it was indispensable to the efficiency of his labors that there should be (1) an office at Lansing appropriated solely to his use; (2) a deputy superintendent; (3) an educational journal under his supervision; and (4) authority to settle questions arising under the school laws. As Mr. Shearman was just closing his term of office, his recommendations could not be attributed to personal considerations of any kind. The recommendation that the superintendent should be authorized to decide questions arising under the school laws had been made by Superintendent Pierce, and had been urgently repeated by several of his successors. The superintendent in New York had been clothed with such authority, and, with proper limitations, it seemed desirable that the Superintendent of public instruction in Michigan should have similar power. The Legislature, however, for some reason difficult to understand, has persistently refused to grant this.

In his report for 1855 and '56 Superintendent Mayhew explained, at considerable length, the duties required of his office, the difficulties under which he labored, and the

urgent necessity for suitable accommodations in the way of rooms, and for a deputy. In closing he said: "I have endeavored to show the inadequacy of Legislative provisions hitherto made in this State, for the proper development of the Department of Education, and to exhibit some of the advantages that would accrue to the interests of Education generally in the State, and to all our Reformatory and Benevolent Institutions, from strengthening the Department of Public Instruction, and giving to it greater scope and unity."

Returning to this matter in the report of the next year, the superintendent said: "It will be a proud day for the State of Michigan, when the Department of Public Instruction is placed upon that elevated basis in regard to office labors to which the other departments of the State government have already attained, and when the superintendent shall be more free to engage in the appropriate functions of his office, in projecting and executing plans for the development and increased usefulness to the State, of our, in many respects, already admirable systems of public instruction." A brief reference to the condition of affairs at this period appeared necessary to a right understanding of the somewhat slow development of the educational department of the State.

Finally in 1859 an act was passed authorizing the superintendent to appoint a deputy and to revoke the appointment at his discretion. This, with the gradual increase of clerks, and the provision of good office rooms, placed the department of education on an equal footing with other departments of the government.

THE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

The act establishing the Agricultural College, passed in 1855, placed that institution under the charge of the Board of Education, thereby greatly increasing the duties and responsibilities of the Board and of the superintendent. Much to the relief of the Board, the control and supervision of the college were transferred, in 1861, to the State Board of Agriculture.

In their report for that year the Board said: "The Board of Education repeatedly recommended that the affairs of the College be entrusted to a State Board of Agriculture to be organized for that purpose. * * * * In yielding the institution to its new guardians, the Board of Education congratulated themselves that they were able to present it not only virtually free from debt, but also with a settled policy, reached after years of experiment. * * * * With the expression, therefore, of their high regard for the gentlemen of the Faculty with whom their intercourse has been so invariably pleasant, and of their hope that the college, under its new guardianship, may reap an ever growing success till it shall meet the high aims and expectations of its founders, the Board of Education take their final leave of this branch of their trust."

BOOKS FOR LIBRARIES.

In 1859, as stated in another connection, the Legislature made it the duty of the Board of Education to select lists of books suitable for township and district libraries, and to contract with responsible parties to furnish these books to school officers at stipulated prices. For some years this

duty imposed a large amount of labor upon the Board, and especially upon the superintendent.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

The Institute law of 1855 imposed upon the superintendent of public instruction the duty of holding a number of teachers' institutes each year, and of making all necessary provisions to render these of practical value in the preparation of instructors for the public schools. The law of 1877 increased very largely the labors of the superintendent in this direction; and subsequent enactments have added still further requirements.

STATE TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

The law of 1867, creating the county superintendency, authorized the State superintendent to grant certificates, on any evidence of fitness satisfactory to himself, licensing the holders to teach in any of the public schools of the State, the certificate being valid until revoked by him. This law was repealed in 1875.

In 1879 an act was passed empowering the Board of Education to grant State certificates after thorough and critical examination of candidates. This act, revised and amended, still remains in force.

QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS' EXAMINATIONS, ETC.

By an enactment of 1879 the State Board of Education was directed to "prepare questions suitable for the examination of teachers for the various grades of certificates provided by law to be given to teachers of the State," and the

State superintendent was instructed to furnish these questions to all officers authorized to examine teachers.

The intent of this act was to make an approach toward uniformity in the examination of teachers throughout the State; but, unfortunately for this purpose, the examiners were not required to use the questions so prepared, and many of them did not do so.

An amendment to the county examiners' law, made in 1887, directed the superintendent of public instruction to prepare all examination questions and send them under seal, to the examining officers. The inplication is that such examiners must use these questions and no others. Slightly changed in form, this provision is still in force. In all matters pertaining to their official duties, the county commissioners are subject to rules and regulations prescribed by the superintendent.

The establishment of additional normal schools, and the natural growth of the educational system of the State, have very largely increased the labors and responsibilities of the Board of Education and of the Department of public instruction. For many reasons the enlargement of the board by the addition of two members would be desirable.

CHAPTER XVIII.

SPECIAL INSTITUTIONS OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Only brief sketches of these institutions will be given, enough to indicate their purposes and character.

THE STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

The State Agricultural College, the pioneer institution of its kind in the United States, is usually and properly classed among the institutions of higher learning; but during the early period of its history a considerable portion of its courses of instruction, aside from what was purely professional, fell within the province of secondary education. The terms of admission prescribed at first, were that applicants "should pass a good examination in the branches embraced in a common school education, namely, arithmetic, geography, grammar, reading, spelling, and penmanship."

The original purpose was to have a close connection between the rural schools and the college, and the same purpose is still kept in view. A recent statute requires the college to admit, without further examination, students who have a diploma or certificate signed by the county commissioner of schools, certifying that they have completed satisfactorily a course of study prescribed by the superintendent of public instruction for district schools, which course must include the studies required for a third grade teacher's certificate. This creates an organic connection between these

schools and the college, and obliges the college to make provisions for some secondary instruction.

The college was established in obedience to a requirement of the constitution of 1850, and the act providing for its organization bears date of February 12, 1855. The institution is located on a farm of six hundred and eighty-three acres, situated about three miles east from the capitol in Lansing. At first the management of the college as stated elsewhere was committed to the State Board of Education, but since 1861 it has been under the control of the State Board of Agriculture.

The first buildings were dedicated, with appropriate services on the 13th of May, 1857, and the first term opened immediately afterward. When established the college had no endowment fund, and for several years depended for its support entirely upon legislative appropriations, sometimes granted grudgingly and after much debate. The Congres-gressional act of 1862 donated to Michigan 240,000 acres of public lands for the endowment of an agricultural and mechanical school. The proceeds of the sale of these lands have created a trust fund, which, on the 30th of June, 1900, amounted to about $850,000. The income of this at present is about $70,000. The college, also, received during that year, $25,000 from the United States government. It has now a larger permanent endowment than any other educational institution in the State. The influence of the institution has been largely increased by a system of farmers' institutes, conducted each year by members of the faculty under the general direction of the board of agriculture.

The value of the grounds, buildings, apparatus, library, etc., was estimated at $800,000 in the year 1903. The num-

ber of Professors and other teachers was 66; the number of students, 960; the number of graduates, 62; and the number of volumes in the library, 23,000. The successive Presidents of the College have been Joseph R. Williams, Theophilus C. Abbot, Edwin Willits, Oscar Clute, Lewis G. Gorton, and Jonathan L. Snyder. Lewis R. Fiske, and George T. Fairchild were each for a time acting President.

THE SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF.

The present constitution directs that institutions "for the benefit of the deaf, dumb, and blind" shall be fostered and supported. Two years prior to the adoption of this constitution the Legislature passed an act to establish an asylum for the deaf, dumb, and blind. Under the provision of this act the deaf and blind were educated in the same institution up to the year 1880, from motives of economy, as there is no natural relation between the methods of instructions and management of the two classes. The school was opened at the City of Flint in 1854, occupying, for a time, a small rented building. The first regular building for the institution was not ready for use until 1856. During the first term twelve children were received, eleven deaf and one blind; the number increased during the second term to seventeen deaf and four blind.

The Principals of the school, in succession, have been Mr. B. M. Fay, Mr. E. L. Bangs, Mr. J. W. Parker, Mr. Thomas MacIntyre, Mr. F. A. Platt. The chief officer, since 1882, has been designated Superintendent, and the Superintendents have been Mr. D. H. Church, Mr. M. T. Gass, Mr. Thomas Monroe, and Mr. Francis D. Clarke, who has filled the position since 1892.

The growth of this institution has been as rapid as the means at the disposal of the managers allowed. In 1865 there were 94 pupils; in 1883, 271; in 1893, 294; in 1903, 410. Number of graduates in 1903, 16; whole number of graduates, nearly 1,400; number of instructors in 1900, 34. Value of grounds, buildings, library, etc., $518,134.27. The school is under the control of a board of three trustees appointed by the governor, and is supported by legislative appropriations. The number of deaf children of school age in the State is between ten and twelve hundred.

Of the studies and instruction in the school for the deaf, the Principal says: "Our course of study runs pretty nearly with that in the public schools except that our pupils start from a lower point, and it is not for some years that the studies are the same. Our great difficulty is to teach language. * * * * It is not till the fourth or fifth year that we can use the text-books prepared for normal children at all. If a boy or girl will stay with us during the whole course—thirteen years—we can graduate them about on an equality with the Junior class of our Michigan High Schools."

In addition to the ordinary studies the pupils are taught to speak and to read the lips. In many classes speech is used constantly in the school room. Besides regular school work every student is taught a trade of some sort. Among these trades are cabinet-making, which includes all kinds of wood-working, glazing, painting, and some knowledge of upholstering and other related matters, shoe-making, tailoring, sewing, dress-making, house-work generally, drawing, designing, something of embroidery, engraving and etching, and printing. A small weekly paper is published, the work

upon which is done by pupils. The intention is to send pupils out from school prepared to be self-supporting and something more. A considerable number of the graduates of the school have entered the Gallaudet college for the deaf at Washington, an institution supported by the National government, and have made good records there. By a law enacted in 1899, the Superintendent of public instruction is authorized and directed, under certain conditions, to grant permission to school boards of districts and cities to establish and maintain day schools for the deaf. The sum of one hundred and fifty dollars may be drawn from the State treasury for the instruction of each deaf pupil for a period of nine months in the year, and a proportionately less sum for a shorter period. Teachers for such schools must have special instruction in methods of teaching the deaf, and at least one year's experience in teaching in a school for the deaf. The so-called "oral" system must be taught in these schools.

THE SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND.

As has been previously stated, the blind were taught in the same institution with the deaf until 1880. In September of that year a separate school for the blind was opened temporarily in a leased building at Lansing with thirty-three pupils in attendance. Subsequently the leased property, with forty-five acres of land, was purchased by the State, and the location of the school was made permanent. Gradually the buildings and other facilities have been increased until the school has become one of the best equipped and most efficient institutions of the kind in the country.

The estimated value of the grounds, buildings, library,

etc., is $155,000. The number of instructors in 1900, was 10, and the number of pupils during the year was 124. The board of control consists of three members appointed by the governor.

The course of studies covers eleven grades and is very much like that of the ordinary graded school. The Principal says: "We have a course of study comparing favorably with those of the best high schools in the State." He further says: "An arrangement has been made by which some of our more advanced students may take certain studies in the city high school. * * * * And I have assurance from the authorities of our State University that if any of our graduates wish to enter that institution favorable consideration will be given to a diploma granted by this school."

Various kinds of handicrafts are taught in the institution; among those are sewing, cooking, broom-making, piano-tuning, and book-making. Quite an extended list of books has been printed at the school in the American Braille system; many of these are of a high literary and scientific character.

The following paragraph from the last report of the school is worthy of consideration: "It is undoubtedly still true, as in the past, that there are more blind persons of school age in this State not availing themselves of the privileges of this school than are enrolled in it. For the sake of these boys and girls themselves, for the sake of the public welfare and good government, this condition of things should be changed. A law making the education of the blind compulsory within reasonable limits, and with appropriate penalties for those causing or permitting the neglect, would be eminently wholesome.

The successive Superintendents of the school have been James F. McElroy, W. G. Race (acting), George Barnes, Robert Barker, Mrs. Josephine Pampell, John Fanning, Edward P. Church, Warren C. Hull, and Clarence E. Holmes.

THE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

This institution is located at Lansing, in the eastern part of the city, on a farm of 300 acres. There are thirteen buildings, exclusive of shops and barns, and the value of the property is estimated at something over $300,000. It was established by a legislative act of 1855, and opened for the reception of boys in September, 1856. The institution was originally called a "House of Correction for juvenile offenders"; in 1859 the name was changed to "State Reform School," and later still it was again changed to "Industrial School for Boys." These successive changes of official designation indicate pretty clearly the progressive change and improvement in popular sentiment in relation to the purpose of the institution and the influence which it should have upon its inmates. At first a juvenile prison, with bars and grates, with high, unsightly fences and locks, the institution has become an elementary and industrial school, with only so much of restraint and discipline as must necessarily be exercised where a large number of boys are brought together for education and training into habits of industry, regularity, self-control, and respect for law and order. Four and one-half hours per day are devoted to study and instruction in common school branches, reasonable time is given for recreation and amusement, and regular labor is required in some department of industry. As opportunities offer the younger boys are placed out in homes, careful pro-

vision being made that they shall receive good treatment and suitable education. The Superintendent reports that but few of those thus placed out are returned to the school; and of those who leave the institution, at the close of their period of detention, or earlier, as a reward for good behavior, he testifies "that at least ninety percent become self-supporting, respectable citizens, and many of them leading business men."

The boys are instructed and trained in almost all industrial employments. Among these are farming, carpenter-work, chair-making, shoe-making, tailoring, painting, and printing.

The institution supports a very fine band of nearly thirty pieces, and an excellent chorus numbering usually twenty-five or thirty boys. At the date of the Superintendent's report for 1900, 670 pupils were enrolled. The number of course varies from month to month, the smallest number during the year 1899-1900, being 590, the largest, 670. Since the opening of the institution 7,616 pupils have been received; of these 7,157 were white boys, 432 colored boys, 18 Indians, 1 Chinese, and 8 girls. The largest numbers are brought to the school at the age of fifteen. From this age the number decreases regularly but slowly to the age of twelve, and then drops rapidly.

The institution is supported by legislative appropriations, and is managed by a board of three persons appointed by the Governor, the Governor himself being a member, ex-officio.

The Superintendents of the institution in order, have been: Theodore Foster, D. B. Nichol, Cephus B. Robinson, Charles Johnson, Frank M. Howe, C. A. Gower, W. H. S. Wood, J. E. St. John.

THE INDUSTRIAL HOME FOR GIRLS.

The Industrial Home for girls was established by an act of the Legislature passed in 1879. It is located about a mile north of the City of Adrian, on a farm of 113 acres, and has at present nineteen buildings of various kinds. The property is valued at $191,171.46. The institution was at first designated as a "Reform School for Girls," but, as in the case of the corresponding institution for boys, the natural process of evolution, within a few years, gave it the present more agreeable and more helpful name. The school is arranged and conducted on the cottage plan, each cottage being under the management of an experienced matron. The studies taught are those of the ordinary elementary school. "The girls are employed in the morning at housework, laundry, light work on the lawn and in the garden; in the afternoon they attend school." Cooking is taught by a regularly trained teacher, and also dress-making and other industries appropriate to the design of the institution. To the year 1903, 1,822 girls had been received into the house. Such as show by their good conduct that they can safely leave the school, are sent out on contract, or leave of absence. It is stated that "an average of about 110 are out on contract leading good lives and doing well." The average number of girls in the institution, during 1900, was three hundred, and the number of officers and teachers was thirty-three. Not all who come to the school are thoroughly reformed; this could not be reasonably expected. But many instructed there, "have gone forth into the world, are married and in homes of their own, leading good lives. Quite a number are dress-making for a living, some are teaching, and sev-

eral, having taken the course in nursing, are regular trained nurses.

The school has thus far done good work, and is accomplishing the purpose for which it was established with a good degree of success.

The original act for the organization of the institution provided that "the general supervision and government should be vested in a board of control to consist of four women and two men, appointed by the Governor with the advice and consent of the Senate." This provision has been modified, and at present the board of control consists of two men and one woman. The support of the Home depends upon biennial appropriations of the Legislature.

The successive Superintendents have been Emma Hall, Margaret Scott, and Lucy M. Sickels.

THE STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

In the year 1870, a commission appointed by the Governor visited many of the poor-houses in the State, and found a large number of children in them under the age of sixteen, mingled with older people, many of whom were disreputable in character. As a result of this investigation an act was passed the next year providing for the establishment of an institution to be called the "State Public School for dependent children." The school was opened in May, 1874. By the original act the purpose of the institution was stated to be "the reception, care, education, and placing in family homes of all the dependent children of the State of sound body and mind, between four and sixteen years of age." The age limit has since been changed and made "between one and twelve," with discretion on the part of the Board

of control to receive children under one year. Some children have been taken into the school when but a few weeks old, and been placed in the "Baby Cottage," so-called.

Michigan claims the honor of having established the first public school of this kind. Similar institutions have been since organized by several other States; and private institutions for essentially the same object have existed in all the Christian centuries.

The school is located about a mile north from the City of Coldwater, in Branch county, on a farm of 160 acres. The location is a pleasant one, with a "Picturesque prospect in every direction." There is an extensive garden; a natural grove of five acres; large play grounds, and an orchard of 700 fruit trees. The surroundings of the children are thus made of the most desirable character. The equipment consists of a central administration building, a Superintendent's residence, a school house, nine cottages, and all other needed subordinate buildings. The cottages, in charge of carefully selected cottage managers, are the temporary homes of the children. The system of organization combines the family and the aggregate plans. The children attend school and have their meals together; in other respects, the inmates of each cottage form a separate family. There is a kindergarten for the youngest children, and the primary branches are taught to those old enough to attend regular classes of the elementary grades. Out of school hours, children of suitable ages are instructed in common daily labor in the garden and about the buildings. It is the policy of the managers to retain children in the school only until good homes can be found for them in private families somewhere in the State. To find such homes and place the children in

them is the most important and valuable work of the institution.

In order to carry out this purpose most effectually, an officer is appointed by the board of control known as the "State Agent" of the school whose duty is to find homes for the children, and to make all necessary arrangements for their proper care, protection, and education. The Superintendent of the school also has similar powers in this direction. In addition to this, the Governor is authorized to appoint an agent of the State Board of Correction and Charities in each county whose duty is to provide for the proper "care of juvenile offenders and dependent children." Whenever necessary, this agent is to visit the neighborhoods and families where children have been placed, and the children themselves, and to ascertain whether the conditions of contracts are observed, and the children are receiving such attention and care as they need, and their best interests require.

The provisions for the care and protection of the dependent children of the State, seem to be all that could be desired, and the management of the school has generally been of the most satisfactory character.

Up to the fifteenth of December, 1903, 5,378 children had been received into the institution, and at that date 170 were remaining there temporarily, until places could be found for them. The school is under the control of a board of three persons appointed by the Governor. In addition to the general Superintendent and a matron there are nine cottage managers and five teachers.

The successive Superintendents have been Zelotes Truesdell, Lyman P. Allen, John N. Foster, Wesley Sears, Chancy

F. Newkirk, W. H. Wieand, A. N. Woodruff, A. J. Murray, and John B. Montgomery.

THE HOME FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED AND EPILEPTIC.

By a legislative act of 1893 provisions were made for establishing a Home for the Feeble Minded and the Epileptic, and the institution was opened in August, 1895. The home is located on a tract of 355 acres of land near the City of Lapeer, and is controlled by a board of three persons appointed by the Governor. The purpose of the institution is "to provide, by all proper and feasible means for the intellectual, moral, and physical training of that unfortunate portion of the community who have been born or by disease have become, imbecile or feeble minded or epileptic, and by a judicious and well adapted course of training and management to ameliorate their condition and to develop as much as possible their intellectual faculties, to reclaim them from their unhappy condition and fit them, as far as possible, for public usefulness in society." The Home is organized on the cottage system, and there are, at this time, twelve buildings of various kinds. The number in the institution June 30, 1900, was 282, and the total number received to that date was 353, 140 males, and 213 females. Besides the superintendent, Dr. W. A. Polglase, seventeen attendants and four teachers were employed at that time, with a necessarily large number of other laborers of various kinds. The Home is doing the usual work of institutions of its character, and is a proper adjunct of a system of public instruction. Whether the feeble minded and the epileptic should be cared for in the same institution is a question open to debate and to future determination.

Mental defects and deficiencies are of all degrees, from the boy or girl who is merely more or less backward in development to the profound idiot who manifests scarcely any traits of human intelligence. Satisfactory classification is consequently extremely difficult. The classification adopted in the Michigan school is thus described: We have, "first, the imbeciles of high, middle, and low grades, all of whom are teachable to a greater or less extent. Second, idiots, excitable or apathetic, who lack intelligence to attend to their simplest wants and are not improvable to any marked extent. Between these two groups we find children who have advanced a little mentally, but have soon reached their limits and remain stationary, who are termed idio-imbeciles. The imbecile classes are not only teachable, but may often be made exceedingly useful in occupations which are carefully selected as best adapted to their most fully developed faculties."

CHAPTER XIX.

SOME GENERAL STATISTICS AND REFERENCES.

Some statistics relating to special subjects have been given in previous chapters. A few are added here of a general character to indicate the rate and progress of development. It will be kept in mind that the statistics of the early years are only approximately correct. Reports from school officials during that period were very imperfect, and in many cases no reports were made. The Superintendent was left to rely upon guesses and estimates, and those sometimes varied from year to year. The statistics of recent years are as trustworthy as similar statistics ever are, and, in many cases, much care has evidently been taken to secure correctness.

TABLE RELATING TO CHILDREN.

Year	School Ages	School Census	Children in Public Schools	Estimated Children in Private Schools	Average length of Schools in months
1836	5 to 16	2,337 Reports imperfect	2,337	No Statistics	
1840	5 to 17	48,817 "	47.901	No Statistics	
1850	4 to 18	132,234	110,478	No Statistics	
1860	4 to 18	246,802	193,107	4,708 (1863)	6.2
1870	5 to 20	384,554	278,686	9,613	6.9
1880	5 to 20	506,221	362,196	18,854	ungraded---7.3 graded------9.1
1890	5 to 20	654,502	427,032	33,975	ungraded---7.7 graded ------9.5
1900	5 to 20	721,698	514,636	52,239	ungraded---8.17 graded-----8.54*

*The apparent decrease in the length of the graded schools, as shown by the report of 1900, has resulted, in part, from the increase in the number of small graded schools.

TABLE RELATING TO TEACHERS AND WAGES.

Year	Teachers Employed			Average Wages per Month		Total Amount Paid Teachers
	Men	Women	Total Number	Men	Women	
1845	1,214	1,839	3,053	$11.98	$ 5.24	$ 24,180.08
1850	1,475	2,612	4,087	14.14	6.46	37,730.02
1860	2,599	5,344	7,943	26.06	13.52	467,286.50
1870	2,793	8,221	11,014	52.62	27.31	1,398,228.59
1880	4,072	9,877	13,949	37.28	25.73	1,917,983 99
1890	3,561	12,429	15,990	46.76	32.75	3,326,287.04
1900	3,240	12,684	15,924	46.73	35.71	4,503,549.39

TABLE SHOWING FINANCIAL CONDITIONS.

Years	Estimated Value of all School property	Estimated Value of School Property in Graded Districts	Total Expenditures for School Purposes
1860	$ 1,633,647	$ 511,520.25	(1862) $ 689,070.10
1870	6,234,797	3,895,287	2,789,553.78
1880	8,977,844	5,826,718	3,109.915.14
1890	15.858,627	9,540,702	5.698,808.84
1900	19,338,173	15,045,291	7,297.691.45

ADDENDA.

Amount of Educational Trust Funds, June 30, 1901, as given in the Auditor General's report:

Primary School 7% Fund	$4,122,832.63
Primary School 5% Fund	877,575.68
Total	$5,000,408.31
University Fund	$ 536,748.81
Agricultural College Fund	832,608.09
Normal School Fund	67,842.62

Money expended for educational purposes during the year 1901, by State Report:

Rural and Graded Schools	$8,395,019.05
University of Michigan	565,953.54
Agricultural College	235,620.68
College of Mines	78,558.23
State Normal College	96,864.58
Central Normal School	66,418.15
Northern Normal School	23,960.07
School for the Blind	31.112.20
Industrial School for Boys	80,841.50
Industrial Home for Girls	52,228.68
School for the Deaf	116,673.85
State Public School	39,689.52
Total	$9,782,940.05

REFERENCES AND AUTHORITIES.

1. Territorial Laws.
2. Proceedings of the Territorial Legislative Council.
3. Reports of the Superintendents of Public Instruction.

The reports of the first Superintendents were not published in separate volumes, but printed with the proceedings of the Legislature, and consequently are obtained with difficulty. The volume published by Superintendent Shearman in 1852, entitled "System of Public Instruction and Primary School Law of Michigan," contains brief synopses of the early reports, extracts from the messages of the Governors and from the reports of the Regents of the University and from other documents relating to education. It contains, also, much other historical matter relating to education in the Territory and State of Michigan.

Among the reports, the first and second of Superintendent Pierce, are of especial historical interest, and also the report

of Superintendent Shearman just referred to. The report for 1880 has a considerable amount of historical, biographical, and statistical matter in addition to the usual annual compilations.

4. The successive editions of School laws.

5. Reports of the various public educational institutions.

6. Proceedings of the State Teachers' Association and other educational organizations.

7. The various documents published, from time to time, by the State educational department.

8. Journal of the Constitutional Convention of 1850.

9. History of Detroit by Silas Farmer.

10. Pioneer Collections.

11. The Michigan Journal of Education, 1854-1861.

12. The Michigan Teacher, 1866-1876.

13. The Michigan School Moderator, 1880, and other educational papers and periodicals.

14. Higher Education in Michigan by Andrew C. McLaughlin.

15. Historical Sketches of Education in Michigan, from State report for 1880.

16. Chart and Key of the Educational System of Michigan, compiled in 1876, by D. C. Jacokes.

17. Michigan and its Resources, 1893.

18. Michigan Semi-Centennial, 1886.

19. History of the Michigan State Normal School, by D. Putnam.

20. Political History of Michigan, by Justice J. V. Campbell.

21. Michigan, A History of Governments, by Justice T. M. Cooley.

22. The Michigan Legislative Manuals.

23. Reports of United States Commissioner of Education.

APPENDIX.

SCHOOL LEGISLATION OF 1903.

Delay in the publication of this volume makes it possible to add a summary of the school legislation of 1903.

The most important act relates to the *establishment of Normal Training Classes.*

The enactment of this law marks a "new departure" in the matter of preparing teachers for the rural schools. Probably experience will suggest some modifications in its provisions, which are in substance as follows:

1. The Superintendent of public instruction is authorized to grant permission for the establishment of a normal training class in any county of the State in which no normal school is located. Only one such class can be established in any county and only ten classes in any one year. The Superintendent prescribes the conditions under which permission will be granted.

2. The classes are to be under the control of a County Normal Board composed of the State Superintendent, the County Commissioner of Schools, and the Superintendent of the schools with which the class is connected. In case the Superintendent should be county commissioner, the board of education of the district in which the class is organized, elects the third member of the county board.

3. In order that a class may be established the people of the district must, by a majority vote, favor the proposition, and the school board of the district must furnish con-

venient rooms and satisfactory teachers. The Supervisors of the county must also favor the establishment of the class. The class must have at least ten members, and must be maintained at least thirty-two weeks in the year.

4. Applicants for admission to the class must be not less than seventeen years of age, of good moral character, and must pledge themselves to remain in the class for a year, and to engage in teaching upon graduation, either in the rural schools or in the lower grades of graded schools.

5. Two courses of study are prescribed, one for one year, and one for two years, and the scholastic conditions of admission are prescribed.

The courses are similar to those in the elementary normal schools, with the addition of elementary agriculture and domestic science.

6. *Certificates.*

Graduates from the one year course receive a certificate valid for three years, entitling the holder to teach, for three years, in any school in the county in which not more than two teachers are employed.

Graduates from the two years' course receive a certificate valid for five years, entitling the holder to teach in any school in the county in grades below the tenth.

Both grades of certificates are valid in any county or city in the State when endorsed by the authority which grants certificates in such county or city.

The certificates may be renewed by the County Board.

7. *Support.*

Funds for the support of these normal classes are derived (1) from the State, (2) the County, and (3) the district in which the school is located. The State pays an-

nually $250 for each teacher employed in the school, provided that the total appropriation to any one county for one school year, shall not exceed $1,000. Of the balance needed, the County pays one-half, provided that the amount paid by the County shall not exceed one-half of the amount paid by the State. The remainder is paid by the locality.

AN ADDITIONAL NORMAL SCHOOL.

An act was passed authorizing the State Board of Education to locate and organize a school to be known as the "Western State Normal School." The school is to be of the same general character as the other Normal Schools, and is subject to the control and management of the Board of Education. The Board has located the school at Kalamazoo, and the buildings will be erected and the school organized as early as the extent of the work will permit.

POWERS OF THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION ENLARGED.

Hitherto the diplomas and certificates to be bestowed upon graduates of the Normal Schools have been prescribed by statute. At the session of 1903 an act was passed authorizing the Board of Education to grant such diplomas and degrees, and to issue such licenses and certificates to graduates as the Board may, from time to time, determine.

This will probably result in some changes in the certificates granted to the graduates from the different courses of study in the normal schools.

EMPLOYMENT INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND.

A law, partially educational in its character and purpose, was enacted establishing the "Michigan Employment Institution for the Blind." The purpose of the institution is to provide "for the training, care and employment of adult blind persons of good moral character." The institution is located at Saginaw, and its control and management are vested in a board of three trustees, one of whom must be a blind person. The institution is to be "an industrial or polytechnic school and factory, a working home, and an employment and information bureau" with a circulating library and such other departments as may seem "wise and judicious."

PAYING FOR THE TUITION AND TRANSPORTATION OF PUPILS.

The following important act was passed, which has vital connection with the matter of consolidating rural schools and transporting children of all grades.

"Any school district which maintains a school during five months of the year, having children residents therein who have completed the studies of the eighth grade in said school, may at any annual meeting vote a tax sufficient to pay the tuition and daily transportation, during school days, of said children to any high school which the school board of said district may select and designate."

CHANGE IN TIME OF EXAMINATIONS.

Regular examinations by the county examiners, for certificates of all grades, are to be held at the county seat, on the

second Thursdays of March and August.

Two other regular examinations may be held, at such places as the examiners select, on the third Thursdays of June and October. Only certificates of the second and third grades can be granted at these examinations.

LIBRARIES.

Some important improvements were made in the statutes relating to libraries, the details of which can be best learned by referring to the statutes themselves.

SUPPLEMENTARY CHAPTER.

THE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Legislative body in Michigan has been, from the first, very conservative in all matters relating to education. It has followed public sentiment, sometimes reluctantly, but has never taken the initiative in any important step of progress. Consequently, the development of the school system has resulted mainly from the voluntary action of the people, either as individuals or through some organization. Of these organizations, the State Teachers' Association has been the most active and influential. For this reason, it seems appropriate to give a very brief sketch of the work of this Society. Frequent allusion has been made, in the preceding chapters, to specific actions of the association upon various subjects, but nothing further has been given.

Educational societies of one sort and another had been formed prior to this State organization, but they had all been short-lived and had accompished very little. The preliminary organization of the present State Teachers' Association was made on the 12th of October, 1852, at Ypsilanti, during the progress of a teachers' institute held immediately after the dedication of the first normal school building. The more formal organization was completed at a meeting held at the same place in March, 1853, when a constitution was adopted. Prof. A. S. Welch, the Principal of the Normal School, was elected president at the preliminary meeting and reëlected after the adoption of the constitution.

The constitution made no statement of the specific purposes of the organization, but left the executive board free to "arrange the order of exercises for the Association at each meeting," according to its judgment. Any person could become a member by subscribing to the constitution and paying the annual fee. It was not the intention of the founders of the association to confine its membership to teachers, or limit its field of activity by definite and narrow boundaries. They proposed to act in any direction in which action was most needed under the conditions then existing, and under conditions which might subsequently arise. Some of the most influential earliest members were not teachers in the strict sense of the term.

During several years semi-annual meetings were held and much experimenting was had to determine the best time in the year for the annual meeting. The first three meetings were held in connection with teachers' institutes, the exercises of the association alternating with those of the institute.

The first meeting without the adjunct of an institute was held in Detroit in April, 1854. Horace Mann and Henry Barnard were both present at this meeting, and Mr. Mann gave two of his most able addresses.

Brief mention must be made of a few of those most prominent and active in the organization and management of the association during the early years of its existence.

The organization of the association at that particular time and place was due to the efforts of Prof. A. S. Welch, then just appointed Principal of the Normal School. Mr. Welch was a native of Connecticut, came to Michigan at the age of eighteen, graduated from the University in 1846,

studied law and was admitted to the bar. His taste, however, led him to abandon the law and he became Principal of the union school at Jonesville. His success there caused his election to the Principalship of the Normal, a position which he resigned after thirteen years of hard labor, on account of impaired health. For some years he was the central figure in the small group which controlled the affairs of the association.

Miss A. C. Rogers, the first Preceptress of the Normal School, a woman of marked ability and great energy, was one of the first officers of the Society and rendered valuable services in the meetings for considerable time. Prof. J. M. B. Sill, so well known for many years in the educational work of the State, was one of the original members, as was also Prof. C. F. R. Bellows, for a long time at the head of the deparment of mathematics in the Normal School.

Prof. Joseph Estabrook appears at the second meeting in 1853. A native of New Hampshire, a graduate of Oberlin College in 1847, Principal of the Union School at Ypsilanti for thirteen years, Superintendent of East Saginaw Schools, Principal of the Normal School nine years, Regent of the University six years, Superintendent of Public Instruction four years, and lastly Professor in Olivet College, Prof. Estabrook was better known and more deeply loved than any other teacher in Michigan.

At the third meeting Dr. J. A. B. Stone, the first President of Kalamazoo College, and Mrs. Stone, long time the able head of the female department of that college, became active members of the association. At the same time, Dr. E. O. Haven later President of the University, and Prof. J. M. Gregory, afterwards State Superintendent for six years,

and for several years more influential than any other man in directing the affairs of the association, appeared.

At the fourth meeting Hon. Ira Mayhew, State Superintendent, Prof. J. F. Cary of the Normal School, Prof. Nichols of Detroit, Prof. A. Winchell of the University, and some others appeared for the first time.

Among those who came into the association about this time were Professors E. Olney, T. C. Abbott, J. R. Boise, H. S. Frieze, O. Hosford, L. R. Fiske, and D. P. Mayhew. Lack of space forbids extended notice of any of these or the mention of others equally active. The present writer became a member of the Association at the meeting at Ann Arbor in April, 1855, when the organization was in the third year of its existence, and consequently had the good fortune to become acquainted with all the early members.

In the remainder of this sketch, attention will be confined mostly to the action of the association on matters bearing upon the development of the school system and schools of the State.

At the third meeting in September, 1853, after extended discussion, the Association voted to commence the publication of a monthly paper, to be named *The Michigan Journal of Education and Teachers' Magazine,* and appointed a committee of five to have entire charge of the publication. This committee consisted of E. O. Haven, A. S. Welch, J. M. Gregory, Mrs. L. H. Stone, and Miss M. Rockwell. Mr. Gregory was made resident and managing editor, and the first number of the Journal was issued from Detroit in January, 1854. We can not trace the history of the Journal during the eight years of its existence. Our interest in it lies in the fact that, under the management of Mr. Gregory,

it was one of the most efficient agencies in pushing forward educational reforms. Through it the Association exerted a powerful influence in securing and shaping educational legislation.

The question of the "Bible in the Schools," or the "religious question" was vigorously discussed at several meetings, beginning with the meeting in April, 1854. At the semi-annual meeting in August of the same year, the debate was continued, and at a later period the subject was again discussed. The action of the Association upon this subject tended to unify the opinions and practice of the teachers of the State, and to prevent the adoption of too radical measures by either party to the contest.

The establishment of union graded schools was strongly advocated by the Association during the period when such schools were in the experimental stage, and were encountering vigorous opposition from the conservative forces in the community.

The first law for the holding of teachers' institutes was secured by the State Superintendent through the earnest and vigorous assistance of the Association, and subsequent improvements were obtained largely by the same assistance.

In the efforts to obtain equal educational rights and opportunities for both sexes, the Association bore an important part. The first extended discussion of the subject occurred at the meeting at Ann Arbor in April, 1855, and the agitation continued until the doors of the University were opened to women by formal action of the Regents on the 6th of January, 1870. The war was waged for fifteen years, and the association may rightfully claim a large share of the honor in securing the final result. At the meet-

ing following the action of the Regents, the Association resolved: "That there is ample cause for congratulation among the friends of education, in the fact that since our last meeting, women have been granted full privileges with men in our State University and Agricultural College."

In the protracted struggle to secure effectual school supervision, the Association was especially active. At its semi-annual meeting at Jackson in December, 1855, the report of a committee previously appointed was discussed at length and a committee consisting of Professors Gregory, Boise, Welch, Levi Bishop, Esq., and Bradford Smith was appointed with instructions to use all possible diligence to secure the enactment of the desired law.

A committee was also appointed to prepare and present to the legislature a "Revision of the laws affecting the government of the Union Schools." This committee was composed of the three eminent lawyers, Levi Bishop, E. C. Walker and S. L. Withey.

The association made vigorous efforts to secure from the legislature an act appropriating a portion of the proceeds of the sale of "Swamp Lands" for educational purposes and appointed Professors Gregory, Welch and Dr. Stone to urge this upon the attention of the legislature. This object was secured at a later period.

It may be a surprise to many to learn that the subject of "Township School Districts" was discussed by the Association as early as 1857, and the advantages of such districts were set forth in a paper prepared by Prof. Hubbard, then Superintendent of the Schools at Adrian. No formal action was taken but the paper was requested for publication.

The report of the executive committee in 1858, after re-

viewing the educational progress of the past year, affirmed that no small share of this improvement was due to the efforts of the State Teachers' Association. Since the organization of the association, the union school system had been carried rapidly forward, the wages of teachers had increased fifty per cent, and the teaching profession had "acquired a securer seat in the affections and respect of the people." The influence of the Society had extended to every school district in the State.

The abolition of the "rate bill" as a necessary preliminary to making the public schools absolutely free, was earnestly advocated by the Association. For several years the Library System received considerable attention, and frequen reports were made by the standing committee upon "Reforms in School Laws." In 1860, this committee recommended "the abrogation of school districts and the substitution of the *township system,* stating pretty fully and clearly the advantages which would follow from this change.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction, in his report for 1859, gave emphatic testimony to the value of the services rendered by the Association in the development and improvement of the school system. He urged that the State could well afford to appropriate a sufficient sum to publish a volume each year made up of the papers and addresses given at the annual meetings. Later for some years, these were published in the annual report of the State Superintendent, but a mistaken notion of economy led the legislature recently to limit the number of pages in the report so that no room remained for the proceedings of the Association.

Up to the outbreak of he civil war, the Association had been largely guided by the "Fathers" of the organization,

and its efforts had been directed more to the securing of reforms in school laws and improvements in methods of school administration than to the development of educational principles or the discovery of better methods of teaching, although those had not been altogether neglected. During the great war and for some time afterwards, the vigor and usefulness of the organization suffered some decline.

The feeling existing among many of the most progressive teachers in the State was expressed by the editor of the *Michigan Teacher* in an article published in the October number of that journal for 1874. He wrote: "The regular winter meeting of the State Teachers' Association will be held this year, of course—from the force of habit, if for nothing else. We suppose the program to be even now in the early stages of preparation. But if the meeting of this winter is to be as nearly barren of interest and results as most of the meetings of late years have been, it may about as well be omitted apart from the pleasant social opportunities it will present. *'Vox et preterca nihil'*—that is the general record. Even the annual publication, for the last two years, of the transactions in part, has hardly justified the existence of the Association, so far as the results have come to the surface. In no respect are we aware that the Society has been a force in determining the educational legislation of the State, in fixing the character of its larger institutions of learning, or even in the improvement of methods in the common schools. [This was not true of the Association during the first ten years of its existence.] In these views we are conscious of being at one with very many of our educators who have attended the meetings, or have been content to stay away and read the proceedings. * * *

Without a 'new departure' it threatens to fall into absolute decay and worthlessness."

The criticisms of the editor of the *Teacher* were partly true and deserved, but were altogether too sweeping. The Association had, at an earlier period, been a vigorous and well-directed power, and had been directly instrumental in securing a number of needed and important reforms and improvements in the school laws of the State. Unfortunately, for various reasons, it had fallen from its high position of influence, and required some radical changes and readjustments of its working machinery to adapt itself to the changed conditions of educational affairs in the State. There was, however, sufficient vitality in the organization, and a sufficiently clear comprehension of the demands of the times, to bring about the necessary modifications at no distant time.

On several occasions the Association secured, mainly by the private and judicious efforts of some of its leading members, the nomination of the man of its choice for the office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. It had influence in the selection of members of the Board of Education. These educational offices had not then come to be regarded as subject to political bargaining, or political regulations as to length of service. Hon. Witter J. Baxter served on the Board of Education nearly twenty-five years. Hon. J. M. Gregory held the office of State Superintendent six years, and would have been elected for another term if he had not absolutely refused to serve longer. Professor O. Hosford held the office eight years. It was an evil day when the doctrine of "rotation of office" and two terms only came to be applied to the Superintendency.

The recovery from this condition dates from the meeting of 1874, since which time the association has enjoyed in general a steady growth in efficiency and usefulness.

At that meeting, the report of the executive committee, written by the then President, said: "During the last half dozen years there has been a growing impression that the association is not accomplishing all that it ought to accomplish; that it is not exerting the influence, which legitimately belongs to it, upon the educational institutions of the State; that it is not, as it should be, a grand educational force, helping largely to fashion public sentiment, and direct public action."

It was suggested that an effort should be made to enlarge the scope of the organization, and that the body should be divided, for convenience and efficiency of action, into appropriate sections or divisions.

After considerable discussion, the executive committee was directed to make provision for carrying out the recommendations, of the report, as far as practicable; to make in fact an essential change in the form of the organization. This meeting was generally regarded as introducing a new era in the history of the association. At the next meeting the plan was practically adopted and, with modifications from time to time, has continued to guide the management of the association.

From this time on the work of the association has gradually taken a wider range, until it now includes discussions of subjects belonging to all grades of schools and all departments of instruction. While improvements in the school laws and in the school system generally still receive attention, subjects and methods of instruction, courses of studies, the

unification of the different grades of schools, the certification of teachers and the supervision of the work of teachers, and other related topics have received consideration.

To the list of the earliest members of the association already given, the names of others who became members a little later, most of whom are unknown to the present generation, should be added. The list is not intended to be complete, but it includes most of those who were active in the association for considerable time.

Dr. E. B. Fairfield, for many years President of Hillsdale College, lieutenant governor of the State for one term, still living at a ripe old age at Oberlin, Ohio; E. J. Boyd, for some time Principal of a private school for girls at Monroe; Ruth Hoppin, for a long while Preceptress of the Normal School at Ypsilanti; John Goodison, for many years Professor in the Normal School; C. L. Whitney, for a time one of the editors of the Michigan Teacher, who left teaching to engage in business;

E. Danforth, who left Michigan for a better position in New York; D. B. Briggs, who later served two terms as State Superintendent; Julia A. King, still active as a Professor of History in the Normal College;

John Richards, for some time Professor in Albion College; E. P. Church, whose last work was in the school for the blind at Lansing; U. W. Lawton, still enjoying a quiet life at Jackson; J. M. Ballou, later an efficient member of the State Board of Education; Lewis McLouth, long a Professor in the Normal School, still at work in the east; W. S. Perry, for many years Superintendent of the schools in Ann Arbor; E. A. Strong, still in active service as Professor in the Normal College;

Duane Doty, for some time Superintendent of Schools in Detroit, later in Chicago; Z. Truesdel, many years Superintendent of schools in Flint, later first Superintendent of the State Public School at Coldwater; H. A. Ford, several years editor of the Michigan Teacher; H. S. Wayland, Professor for a time in Kalamazoo College; W. H. Payne, still serving a second period as Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching in the State University, for several years one of the most active and efficient members of the Association; B. A. Hinsdale, who came into the Association at a somewhat later period, and is still remembered for his efficient services in the University as well as in the Association. Space compels the omission of some other names of comparatively early members, and of all who have become members in recent years. It is well that the "Fathers" be remembered at least by name.

The fiftieth annual meeting of the Association was held at Saginaw on December 29th, 30th and 31st, 1902.

One session was devoted to exercises appropriate to the occasion. Three papers were read; the first on "Educational conditions in 1852, and the Beginnings of the State Teachers' Association," prepared by D. Putnam; the second by Austin George, upon "Some of the early active members of the Association"; and the third by H. R. Pattengill on "Some Things which the Association has been influential in accomplishing."

It will be in harmony with the purpose of this sketch to quote a portion of Mr. Pattengill's paper. He said:

"In the early part of its history, the influence of the Association was very great indeed. For many years nearly all the legislation pertaining to educational matters was directly

the result of work done in this Association. Naturally, as the educational work of the State became established, the immediate results of the Association's deliberations were not so pronounced. Time permits us merely to cite in the most cursory manner the important features of its mighty work. It is of course, impossible to determine just how much influence one of several factors has in accomplishing a purpose, but it seems hardly possible for anyone who has made any study of the subject to doubt for an instant the Association's mighty influence in—

1. Establishing an *esprit du corps* among teachers.
2. Elevating educational ideals.
3. Introducing Michigan's foremost teachers to the teachers of the State, either personally or through their contributed articles.
4. Bringing to Michigan educators of national prominence; e. g. Horace Mann, Francis W. Parker, E. E. White, etc.
5. Improving methods of teaching.
6. Abolishing the "odious rate bill," and establishing free schools.
7. Establishing an excellent system of high schools.
8. Aiding the cause of co-education in the State University.
9. Founding a "Journal of education," which in the early days was a valuable ally of the department of education.
10. Fostering teachers' institutes.
11. Securing better supervision of schools and examination of teachers.
12. Establishing and maintaining both district and township libraries.
13. Greatly improving the moral and religious instruction in the schools.
14. Making the school month twenty days.

15. Establishing normal schools and training classes.
16. Securing good compulsory school laws.
17. Promoting manual training, kindergarten, physical culture, music and drawing in the schools.
18. Repealing the abominable law of State publication of text-books.
19. Securing laws favorable to free text-books.
20. Educating the people on rural high schools, consolidation of rural schools, and centralization."

It will be readily conceded that the things enumerated in this list differ much in relative value, but in the main the enumeration is a just one, and the Association may rightfully be proud of its record of fifty years of labor.

The Presidents of the Association during the first twenty-five years of its existence, to 1877, were the following:

Principal A. S. Welch, Hon. John M. Gregory, Professor Joseph Estabrook, President James A. B. Stone, Superintendent Franklin Hubbard, Professor A. Winchell, Principal E. J. Boyd, Professor E. L. Ripley, Professor John M. B. Sill, President E. B. Fairfield, Professor O. Hosford, Professor D. Putnam, Superintendent W. H. Payne, Professor D. P. Mayhew, Professor H. L. Wayland, Superintendent T. C. Abbott, Superintendent Duane Doty, Principal J. F. Nichols, President J. B. Angell, Superintendent H. S. Tarbell, Superintendent W. S. Perry, Professor C. F. R. Bellows, Professor Edward Olney.

The general policy of the Association gave its presiding officers only a single term. In a few cases the rule was disregarded and a President was elected for a second term.

It is to be hoped that the historian of 1952 will find abundant material to put to the credit of he Association in a summary of the work of a second half-century.

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